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WHAT THE GOVERNMENT IS DOING FOR SOLDIERS WITH SPEECH DEFECTS

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MENTAL and nervous affections caused by "war strain" or what is commonly known as "shell shock," are far more numerous than is generally supposed. So great is the number, that the U. S. Public Health Service has established throughout the country, hospitals for observation and treatment. What is of vital interest to us is the fact that most of the soldiers who suffered from war neuroses, had, as a part of the symptom, a speech defect, most frequently hysterical aphonia followed by stuttering. This speech defect was merely an expression of some underlying instability or conflict, and was often overcome in a short time. In about 5% of these cases, however, the defect became fixed by an hysterical or neurotic mechanism, and has lasted down to the present time. For the treatment of these cases the Government has established a Speech Clinic at the Hospital at Waukesha, Wisconsin, under the direction of Dr. Smiley Blanton, of the University of Wisconsin, assisted by the hospital psychologist. Successful working has been made possible by the cordial assistance and cooperation of the medical director, Dr. Lawrence Kolb, the clinical director, Dr. Thos. J. Heldt, and other doctors on the Staff. At this clinic we find two types of cases: first, the hysterical type, in which a definite emotional conflict has been converted into a speech symptom; and second, the psychoneurotic type, where no definite conflict was manifest, but where we have an individual who is super-

sensitive, seclusive, fearful, and suffering in much the same way in which the neurotic suffer, only to a very much greater degree.

Practically every man who was in service suffered from privations, exhaustion, or shell concussion. Why, then, should some have withstood the strain and not these? That is what we ask at every turn. We must know the reason; and in order that we may more thoroughly understand the basis of these fears, these symptoms of instability, and conflicts, we try to find the relation that they bear to the patient's entire life. We go back into the history of each man, and get, in as thorough a way as is possible, data concerning his family. We wish to know if his father and mother are neurotic, whether or not there is a history of insanity, epilepsy, psychopathic tendencies or prolonged illnesses. Are there other cases of speech defect in the family, which might show a tendency to inherent weakness in the speech mechanism; has the patient an organic defect, for which he has not compensated, such as malformation of the palate, or poor occlusion? A detailed speech history is also obtained, with a careful estimate of the war experience upon it. Upon facts thus established we may base our diagnosis.

We have, for instance, a man with a comparatively negative family history. As a child, he was somewhat late in talking. At the age of seven years, he was very ill with typhoid fever, after which illness, he re-learned to talk. When desire for speech returned, he stuttered. This stutter was rather mild in form, and did not hinder his progress in school nor his work. While in France, he suffered from great physical hardships, such as long marches, and lack of shelter and food. His captain would not admit his exhaustion. In spite of all this, he never flinched from the line-of-duty. He worried, but kept right on. His speech grew worse. While in this weakened condition he was gassed and half buried by a shell explosion. For two days he could hardly speak, and his condition improved very little during the rest of his service. When he was discharged, he went to the woods in northern Minnesota, where he regained much of his strength. He was then sent to the Clinic for treatment.

In this case we have a man with a slight weakness in the speech mechanism which predisposed him to this difficulty. As far as his emotional life was concerned, he had a great many compensating factors, but there also we found some instability. He was of the

over-anxious, psychoneurotic type, who worried because he could not live up to his ideals. It was doubtless this anxiety, plus his emotional instability, which made him retain his defect. He has just been discharged, having practically cleared up his difficulty.

Quite in contrast to this type, we have an occasional case of hysterical aphonia. Most of these cases which suffered from shell-concussion, showed no visible signs of injury, lost their power of speech, and yet were able to write a clear account of their experiences. They could not whisper, nor produce an audible sound. They usually showed signs of extreme terror, frequently suffered from terrifying dreams at night, and called out in fright. This was often followed by return of speech.[1] One of our cases will serve to illustrate this hysterical mechanism affecting the voice.

The patient had stuttered from the age of four to six years. He was timid and resentful as a child, and had a decided mother-attachment. He lacked ambition, as a young man, and had no desire to enter service—He gave, as his excuse, the necessity for supporting his mother. He was drafted, however, and sent to the front lines. While there, he received a slight injury, and was rendered unconscious for two hours. He was sent to the First Aid Camp for a short time, and then returned to the front. His stutter, which had not been present for over twenty years, returned. He was not relieved from duty on account of this, however, and in two months he began having fainting spells. He was then returned to the United States and discharged. He was still stuttering, but received no pension for it. He attempted to work and found that regular employment was impossible on account of nervousness. One day, while at work, he fainted, and on his return to consciousness found that he had completely lost his power of speech. He was then sent to a U. S. Hospital for six months. During this time he was granted $90.00 a month compensation. His voice returned, but he stuttered badly. He was discharged as improved, and sent home. His compensation was then cut to $18.00. He still felt unable to work. A large grocery bill which had accrued, and a mortgage due on the home was constant sources of worry. The symptom manifested on the previous occasion, now returned, and he was again speechless. After six months he was sent to the Clinic at Waukesha, in a very agitated condition. Every encouragement possible was given him

[1] F. W. Mott, "War Neuroses and Shell Shock," (1919), p. 95.

that his speech would return in a short time. The fourth night after his arrival, he shouted out while dreaming, and awoke. With the consciousness of speech, his voice returned. This time he did not stutter. Thru vocal drill and the establishment of a correct type of breathing, his voice regained most of its normal strength and range.

We have in this man an inadequate personality, with hysteria written in every line of his history, and also between the lines. Recurrent hysterical aphonia, followed once by hysterical stuttering, were developed upon an unstable speech mechanism. The pension neurosis, which followed later, only helped to fix the mechanism. He was not a malingerer. These reactions through the loss of speech were unconscious ones. It was simply a personal equation, his way of reacting to a situation.

Another case, which might be called a mixed type, in which we have a mild psychoneurotic stutter upon which is developed an hysterical reaction, is brought out in the following interesting case, where the most unexpected result happened.

This soldier had a mild stutter when he entered service. Immediately afterward, his speech defect almost disappeared. He was at his very best while serving as a runner in the Argonne, where he was constantly exposed to shells and machine-gun fire. When he reached Germany, he became so homesick and his speech grew so bad that he could no longer carry on his military duties, and was discharged.

In the treatment of these cases we do not try to stimulate nor relax the local organ either by massaging or electricity. Instead, we analyze as completely as possible the patient's whole life, and try to find the basis of these conditions characterized by instability and exaggeration of emotion. Not only do we analyze for the conscious attitude, but also through the use of some form of the Jung Word-Method association test, we get what we can of the unconscious material. Occasionally we meet a man who seems totally incapable of any introspection, and from whom it is impossible to obtain any data as to subjective experience. It is with these cases that the above method of procedure is almost imperative. Having done this, we try to re-educate the patient in such a way that he may see more clearly where he has failed to adjust properly to life, and to point out a safer and better path.

Since there is, in these cases, a fundamental weakness in the speech mechanism, training is given in correct breathing, and quiet easy speech. Patients are also given relaxation exercises of a definite type, not merely of the external muscles, but complete and thorough relaxation, which is the only kind from which results can be obtained. Co-ordination and muscular control are re-established in part, through suitable occupational-therapy—such as basketry or coarse weaving. Swimming and dancing are also encouraged for this reason. At the same time all patients are given general treatments for nervousness in the Hydro- and Electro-Therapy Departments. Thus these men are re-educated in a broad sense. With their speech training they are getting a basis for both mental and physical readjustment, which will help them to go forth again, better able to take and hold their places in life.

In conclusion let me say—these types, just given, may seem very far removed from speech cases most common to the Clinics of Colleges and Public Schools, but to us they signify what might be, and so frequently is, developed upon the cases in civic life. Just to witness, and know the history of some of these boys, would be the strongest appeal which could possible be made for early corrective work, and the re-education of neurotic children. When I think of what these boys have suffered through their instability, and how easily they might have been saved the fate which has been theirs—I feel that there is no department in public school work which is of greater service than is that of the correction of speech.

THE CONTENT OF A HIGH SCHOOL COURSE IN SPEECH

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(Read at the Meeting of The Wisconsin Teachers' Association, November 4th, 1920)

A DECADE ago it seemed doubtful whether the importance of training in speech would ever be widely recognized. The situation is quite different today. There has come a growing conviction among school men everywhere that some sort of organized class work in Speech should be introduced into the high school curriculum. The field is white with opportunities for service. We stand on the threshold of a new day.

Booker T. Washington used to tell of meeting an elderly colored woman on the street one morning and asking her where she was going. "Oh," she replied, "I'se done bin whar I'se gwine." Mr. Washington was wont to repeat Aunt Dinah's answer and then remark with a twinkle in his eye that the most optimistic fact about the condition of the negro race is that it still has its future before it, whereas so many other races have done bin whar they are gwine. Whatever may be the condition of other high school subjects, I feel that we who teach Speech are entitled to such comfort as we may be able to derive from our faith that our future lies before us.

If we are to enter into this future and make the most of its possibilities for service, we must have a larger number of trained teachers, and school administrators must give the trained teacher of Speech the same measure of independent action which is accorded to trained teachers of other subjects. Many teachers of Speech who possess a thorough knowledge of their subject and its pedagogy are seriously hampered in their teaching by the arbitrary interference of superintendents and principals who, although wholly unacquainted with the Speech field, set themselves up as ultimate authorities as to what the character of the work in Speech should be. No wise school executive will attempt to tell his teach-

ers how and what they are to teach in their respective departments. Capable, self-respecting teachers cannot do effective work under surveillance which bespeaks suspicion as to their competence. This is as true of the teacher of Speech as of any other.

I have been asked to discuss the content of a high school course in Speech. I shall limit what I have to say to a consideration of the fundamental training which should be offered in a beginning course. Until we can agree as to the nature of this course, we shall never be started on our way out of the present chaos. Our first business in the high school is not with public speaking in any of its phases. When we put high school pupils into courses in interpretative reading, debating, dramatics, or any other formal type of speaking and reading before we have given them elementary training in speech, we violate every sound canon of educational practice. It is indefensible pedagogy to begin the study of any subject with its more complex and intricate phases. Our first concern in the high school should be the fundamental principles of speech, and until a course in the elementary foundation matters of speech—those facts and principles common to all speaking and reading—has been provided, it is bad practice to offer advanced and specialized courses. The first course in Science is, very properly, not Physics, Chemistry, or Botany. It is General Science. We should parallel this course with another which shall do for Speech that which the course in General Science does for Science.

It is my purpose to offer you my conception of the proper character of such a course in Speech. If what I say is in general terms, you will readily understand how impossible it would be for me to make detailed and specific suggestions as to the subject matter of the course. I spend two hours a week throughout an entire school year attempting something like that task for one of my classes. In the very brief time allotted to me here, I can but lay before you some of the basic considerations which should govern our selection of content.

The determining factor in the choice of the subject matter for any course must be its objective,—what we are designing the course to accomplish. The principal reason for the distressing confusion prevailing at present as to the content of high school courses in Speech is the lack of agreement as to the purpose of the work. Until we reach some degree of unanimity of opinion at this point,

we shall not progress far toward the standardization of content. Let us therefore consider briefly the question of objectives in our foundation course in Speech.

The course should not differ from any other course in the curriculum so far as its general educational function is concerned. *It should be aimed at the task of developing the innate capacities of the pupils and adjusting them to their social environment.* The several disciplines of the school must always converge upon this objective. The teacher of Speech must above all else be an *educator.* He makes his gravest mistake when he conceives of his subject as something apart from and either superior or inferior to other disciplines. Unless Speech can win and hold a place in the educational world by the same sanction under which other subjects hold theirs, it has no rightful place there at all.

It is true, however, that each subject must make its individual contribution, and it is clear that the emphasis in teaching any subject should be at the point where its contribution is most distinct. What then is the peculiar function of Speech training in the educational process? Dr. Woolbert in his new book, "The Fundamentals of Speech," analyses speech into *thought, language, action,* and *voice.* The function of the entire curriculum is the developing of *thought* power. The English department makes its special contribution by increasing the pupil's mastery of *language,* which is not essentially different in its spoken and written forms. *Thought* training and *language* training therefore cannot be the special province of the department of Speech. Our connection with English is due to the fact that so far as *thought* and *language* are concerned English and Speech are not substantially different. But there comes a juncture at which speech becomes something other than words and rhetoric. The facts and principles which constitute the peculiar subject matter of Speech are the same when taught in French or German as when taught in English. Here lies the special field of Speech as an academic discipline; not in the thoughts we express, not in the words we utter, but in how we use action and voice as means of communication with our social environment. In speech we may, and indeed we generally do, use muscles other than those of the vocal apparatus. We may have speech without words at all, but speech which consists of articulate sound and nothing more is a poor type of speech. The learning of speech is the com-

prehensive process of developing control over those muscle systems by the use of which we may produce the auditory and visual symbols capable of making our meanings perceptible and explicit to others. Even at its simplest, speech is the most complex function of man's neuro-muscular equipment. Speech should be thought of more as a means of communication and less as a means of expression, and we should teach Speech with the primary object of bringing minds into the most efficient communion with each other. The special function of training in speech is to furnish the pupil with a knowledge of the fundamental processes of speech and to start him on the way to the control of his body as the instrument of his mind in communication with those about him.

I shall not venture upon the assessment of responsibility for the facts as to where the emphasis has been in much of the high school work in Speech; but the fact has been that all too frequently training in Speech has been little other than training in usage, diction, and rhetoric. I am assuredly not implying that such training has been overdone. Anyone who hears the conversation of university students day after day knows that there has been no overtraining in English. Neither am I asserting that the teacher of Speech should pay no attention to the thought and language phases of speech in his classroom. But I do maintain that the emphasis in the teaching of Speech should lie elsewhere, viz., on the study of those muscular processes which are basic in the production of voice and significant bodily action other than voice. I object to calling a course in Speech by such titles as "Oral English" or "Oral Composition." "Oral" ignores the *action* aspects of speech; and, as Professor Winans once remarked, these titles generally connote an essay standing on its hind legs. I am emphatically not asserting that such courses are valueless. I am perfectly willing to recognize the merit of such courses in *English*. I am merely insisting that their emphasis is upon English and that they are not properly to be designated as courses in Speech. Our so-called "better speech weeks" touch speech only incidentally. They are generally better usage weeks, or language and English weeks. I have no disposition to be unfair to our friends in the English field. I am not asking that they relinquish territory which is properly theirs. I am not asking that they stop teaching English and teach Speech. I am insisting, however, that there is such a thing as an academic sub-

ject called Speech, and that it has a just claim to the same degree of autonomy which English enjoys. The basis of the relationship between English and Speech has already been indicated; but relationship and mutual interests must not obscure the fundamental differences between the two disciplines. It is obviously a sheer waste of time to discuss the content of a course in Speech unless it be granted that there is a possible content which is separate and distinct from that of any other course.

Now I can readily imagine that someone may be fearful lest my counsel should encourage the revival of that dreadful educational anomaly—elocution. The trouble with elocution was never in its objective; it was in the unscientific way in which it went about its work. Its cardinal blunder was in its detachment from the rest of the curriculum. As I have before suggested, it seems to me a matter of paramount importance that the study of speech should always be carried on under the direction of intelligent educators and in the most complete integration with all the other courses in the curriculum. The teacher who makes it his guiding purpose to train his pupils in the science and art of communication with their fellows will never be guilty of those absurdities which brought the old elocution under condemnation.

When I say that the emphasis in the teaching of Speech should be upon matters of action and voice, I do not mean to imply that we are to confine ourselves to drilling our pupils on exercises for the improvement of their speech. I believe that our foundation course should have a double content. First, we have significant facts and principles to teach as matters of knowledge; and, second, we are to give elementary training in the application of these facts and principles to the practical problems of reading and speaking. As teachers of Speech we have too often felt embarrassed to have anyone catch us teaching facts and principles to our classes. If one of our colleagues has come into our class-room unexpectedly and found us behaving as teachers of Science, Mathematics, or History behave, we have hastily terminated such reprehensible conduct and called Johnny Jones to the platform to work in a way which might be considered more practical. We have meekly accepted the notion that the whole duty of the teacher of Speech is to coach the pupil to read and speak more effectively. This conception has been imposed upon us by other departments whose teachers consider

their time too precious to be spent in paying any attention to the speech of their pupils. They look to us to compensate for their neglect. They have industriously pumped information into the containers and it devolves upon us to release the aforesaid information and render it effective in the world. I am ready to grant that this is our greatest potential service, but I claim the right for the teacher of Speech to impart a knowledge of facts and principles as such. There are two main reasons for taking this position: first, improvement in speech is intimately dependent upon the pupil's ability to criticize his own speech intelligently; and, second, these facts and principles concerning man's highest and finest means of adaptation to his environment are intrinsically as important as the facts and principles which may be taught in any other subject. I have indicated in the brief appended outline what points should be presented in the course. Dr. Woolbert's book, to which I have referred, makes the best statement which I have yet seen of the fundamental facts and principles of speech. I should certainly not attempt to teach all the facts and principles there set forth, and I should want to simplify and modify those to be taught, but I should base my teaching upon a thorough knowledge of all of them.

I am anxious that nothing I have said may be construed as an objection to the offering of advanced courses in Speech in the high school. I have tried to hold in mind a basic beginning course aimed at the needs of all high school pupils. The introduction of this course is needed vastly more than anything else in the high school Speech field. The elementary forms of debating, interpretative reading, and dramatics should be used in the beginning course but they should serve as means rather than as ends in themselves. Instead of teaching Speech so that debating, contest speaking, and dramatics may be carried on more efficiently we should use these agencies for the improvement of reading and speaking.

In determining the specific content of the foundation course in Speech we should apply the following tests:

Does the projected subject matter contribute the maximum to the attainment of the general ends of education?

Is the subject matter of such character that the teaching emphasis will fall naturally upon matters of action and voice?

Are the proposed matters of fundamental importance as

items of knowledge, and will they serve as basic principles in the practice of which may be found the secret of progress toward proficiency in all forms of speech?

Every bit of subject matter which goes into the course should be serviceable for the purpose of giving the pupil a knowledge and a control of his physical instruments of speech. This is our paramount objective and our supreme service.

THE CONTENT OF THE FOUNDATION HIGH SCHOOL COURSE IN SPEECH

The content of the course should be of such character as will make it most helpful in attaining the following objectives:

I. KNOWLEDGE OF:

1. The general facts concerning the nature and function of speech.
2. The fundamental requisites of good reading and speaking, which are:
   (a) Physical freedom and readiness for response to thought and feeling.
   (b) Correct and adequate thought and emotional processes.
3. The functions and interrelations of the following in speech situations:
   (a) Reader or speaker.
   (b) Listener.
   (c) Author, when other than reader or speaker.
   (d) Characters presented in material spoken or read.
4. Elementary phonetics.
5. The elementary principles of voice production and control.
6. Standards for the analysis and appraisal of performance in reading and speaking.

II. PROFICIENCY IN:

1. The controlled use of the muscle systems capable of symbolic and pantomimic action. Muscular relaxation, smoothness of co-ordination, and responsiveness to thought and feeling.
2. The controlled use of the vocal apparatus. Diaphragmatic breathing, correctness and precision of utterance, vocal flexibility and responsiveness to thought and feeling.
3. The controlled use of the total physical equipment as an instrument of communication in reading aloud simple prose and poetry.
4. The controlled use of the total physical equipment as an instrument of communication in delivering simple original talks.
5. Intelligent criticism of one's own work and the work of others in reading and speaking.

CORAX AND PROBABILITY

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ANALYSIS.

HISTORICAL SETTING.
CONTENT OF THE FIRST TEXT ON RHETORIC.
DEFINITION OF RHETORIC.
GENERAL OUTLINE OR DISPOSITIO.
PRINCIPLE OF PROBABILITY.
DISCUSSION OF PROBABILITY.

"TO ōōn kakon kakou Korakos" wrote a punning scholiast[1] centuries ago. "Mali corvi malum ovum" echoed a Latin commentator, as he handed on the story. Both were expressing an opinion that Tisias, a pupil of Corax of Syracuse, was a bad egg because laid by a bad crow (*korax*). The occasion which caused these humorous remarks was a lawsuit in a Greek court between the pupil and his master. Corax is said to have demanded pay for his lessons in rhetoric, arguing as follows: You must pay me if you win the case, because that proves the worth of my lessons. You must pay me also, if you lose the case, for the court will issue a decree against you. Either by our stipulation or by the judgment of the court you fail. What's the use of going on with the case? To this Tisias replied: I will pay you nothing, because if I lose the case, your instruction has been worthless; whereas if I win, the court will absolve me from the claim. The judges, unable to solve the dilemma, probably postponed their decision in the usual way; while they cracked the bad egg joke already related, at the expense of both parties.[2]

Being now pleasantly introduced to the litigious authors of the

[1] Prolegomena to Hermogenes in Walz's Rhetores Graeci.

[2] Suidas, quoted by Hamilton, Logic, Lecture XXIII. A similar story is related of Protagoras and his pupil Euathlus by Aulus Gellius, c. 10.

first text-books on art—in this case, rhetorical art—, we are about to become more intimately acquainted with them. Both happened to be Sicilian Greeks in those marvelous days when a real Marathon was run, when Xerxes lashed the Hellespont—days when

> "A king sate on the rocky brow
> Which looks o'er sea-born Salamis,
> And ships, by thousands, lay below,
> And men in nations;—all were his!
> He counted them at break of day—
> And when the sun set, where were they?"

Those were the days when the great despotism, symbolized by the huge cables that bound Europe to Asia, was broken; and with it innumerable small tyrannies in the Grecian world. Marathon and Salamis meant more than the defeat of Asiatic despots; they meant the establishment of democracy among the Hellenic peoples. This was true not only on the continent, but also on the island of Sicily. Hard by old Aetna great Gelo ruled with an iron hand—he who became so inflated with his own importance that he signified his willingness to aid Sparta, Athens, and Corinth in the struggle with Persia, provided that he be made generalissimo of all the forces.[3] Theron was boss of Agrigentum; while Thrasydaeus held the reins in Himera.[4] Hiero patronized Pindar, Simonides, and Aeschylus. Phalaris moulded a hollow brazen calf that he might gloat over the cries of victims as they roasted within.[5] Panaetius took the seat of authority in Leontini. Cleander and Anaxilaus left their names as leaders in Gela and Rhegium. Thrasybulus had been advised by Periander "to cut off the tops of the tallest ears of corn, meaning that he must always put out of the way the citizens who overtop the rest."[6] Evidently he followed the advice of his fellow tyrant, for Diodorus tells us that during the eleven months of his tyranny he put to death many citizens, banished others by false accusations, and seized their property. By so doing he aroused such indignation that a revolution began which overthrew not only Thrasybulus, but also the other tyrants of the island.

[3] Herodotus, VII, 161, 162.
[4] Ousted in 472 B. C.
[5] Diodorus, IX, 20.
[6] Aristotle, Politics V, 10, 13.

Universal freedom having been acclaimed, governments more or less democratic were set up everywhere. (B. C. 467.)[7]

What was Demos to do with his newly acquired independence? For one thing he began to talk; he could not help it, for as Democritus once remarked, "The sign of liberty is freedom of speech." For a while he probably talked in order to experience the pleasure of hearing himself talk, but soon he betook himself to the ecclesia and the court room. Liberty of speech brought with it responsibility, the responsibility of making laws and of interpreting them. At this point Demos made a discovery—even as he did in the time of the French Revolution; even as the Germans and the Russians are now doing—that the order which seems to prevail under the dominion of a single will, gives way to apparent chaos when the many attempt, without experience, to rule themselves. Politics, law-making and court-room procedure always mean a divergence of ideas. Out of the innumerable disputes in Sicily after the revolutions, Rhetoric was born—proof of which fact will now be given.

Mention was just made of court-room procedure, because one of the questions that bothered the Trinacrians was the ownership of land. Of course, the aboriginal Sikels were not considered as having any title—they were serfs bound to the soil. The descendants of the Greek colonizer, however, on returning from the banishment, to which they had been sent by the tyrants, naturally recalled the days when their fathers owned the estates and held the offices, conditions which gave their claims the precedence, at least in their own minds. Opposed to them, however, were the favorites of the former tyrants, men to whom the estates had been given, sometimes a whole generation before the revolutions. Then came Demos loudly declaring that the land was his, because he tilled it and because just at that moment he controlled the legislature, the courts, and the army. In fine, the old oligarchs and the concessionaires of the late tyrants found themselves face to face with the possessors of the soil. Very similar are the conditions today in Mexico, where the former peons have taken possession of the land held by the descendants of the conquistadores or by the friends of Juarez, Diaz and Co., heads of pseudo-republican administrations that succeeded the Spanish dominion. Naturally the haciendados

[7] Diodorus XI, 67, 5; 68, 5. *Tās de allās poleīs tās tyrannoumenās ē phrourās echousās eleuth[illegible]santes apokatestēsan tais polesi tās demokratiāc.*

when he penned the *Sophistical Elenchi,* for therein he overlooks Corax, as he mentions those "who discovered principles rhetorical made but little progress, but men who are now celebrated (receiving, as it were, by succession from many who promoted art by parts) have increased it: Tisias after the first authors, but Thrasymachus after Tisias, Theodorus after him and many others, and brought together many particulars, wherefore it is no wonder that the art has a certain multitude of precepts." What has become of Corax? Note the expression, "Tisias after the first." The first was probably Corax, for Aristotle specifically mentions him in his Rhetoric (II, 24, 11) as we shall presently note therein, but omits Tisias.

The same trick is played by Plato in the Phaedrus, for he draws from Socrates these words: "I cannot help feeling that this is a wonderfully mysterious art which Tisias has discovered, or whoever the gentleman was, or whatever his name or country may have been, who was the discoverer."[19]

Enough has been said on the question of authorship. For those who may be curious as to the details of individual, or joint, authorship, the researches and opinions of Verrall[20] and Hamberger,[21] both of whom have thoroughly thrashed out that phase, are valuable. There seems to be no doubt, in spite of the fact that his name does not always appear, that Corax composed a treatise on Rhetoric, which was probably the first.

What was in that treatise? Here again we must be content with scanty gleanings. In the first place we learn from the *Prolegomena ad Hermogenem* that Corax defined Rhetoric. He called it the art of persuasion (*peithous dēmiourgos*).[22] The definition indicates that at a very early date men had discovered the value of pleasant, agreeable, delightful speech. They had observed the effect of honeyed words, uttered by some sweet-voiced Nestor, advocating, urging, counselling, advising, recommending. Those who could speak fitly prudent words were heard with rapt attention by their fellows. They had their way in the hearts and minds of men. To discover the secret of the enchanters, to set it down in a book, to reduce to rules the methods of the successful orators, be-

[19] Plato: Phaed. 273, C. "Whoever the gentleman was"—probably Corax.
[20] Korax and Tisias: Journal of Phil. IX (1881).
[21] Hamberger: Die Rednerische Disposition. Paderborn, 1914.
[22] Walz, Rhetores Graeci, IV, 19.

came the task of the rhetoricians. Quite generally they agreed on the function of their profession. Apollodorus, for instance, said that "the first and supreme object of judicial pleading is to *persuade* the judges, and to lead him to whatever opinion the speaker may wish." Patrocles called it the "power of finding whatever is *persuasive* in speaking." Ariston agrees, for he defines it is "the science of discovering and expressing what ought to be said on political affairs, in language adapted to *persuade* the people." Cornelius Celsus is of the opinion that it is used when the orator wishes "to speak *persuasively* on doubtful and political matters."[22a] Pass on to Aristotle, who regarded "Rhetoric as the faculty of discovering or finding in any question presented that which is adapted to produce *persuasion*, or the possible means of *persuasion*."[23]

Agreeing apparently with the ancients, a modern authority or two may be cited. Whately, for instance, says "the province of rhetoric * * * in the narrowed sense would be limited to '*persuasive speaking*'." Sir Richard Jebb calls it "the art of using language in such a way as to produce a desired impression upon the hearer or reader. The object is strictly persuasion, rather than intellectual approval or conviction."[24] The New English Dictionary defines Rhetoric as "the art of using language so as to *persuade* or influence others." With such an array of authorities in practical agreement on the definition, Corax is certainly in the best of company. The honor of defining the subject that he taught is not, however, the only honor that must be conferred upon the ancient Sicilian.

The second crown due Corax must be awarded because he named the parts of a discourse. Strange as it may seem men had delivered speeches for hundreds, perhaps thousands of years, but no one had analyzed those speeches. Corax listened to the pleas in the courts, to the addresses in the forum with the mind of a philosopher. He perceived that the majority of those harangues might have five divisions: the *prooimion* (proem, exordium, or introduction), the *diēgēsis* (narration), the *agōn* (struggle, argument, proof), the *parekbasis* (disgression, subsidiary remarks), and final-

[22a] These authorities are quoted from De Quincey's Essays on Style, Rhetoric, and Language, p. 140. Edited by F. N. Scott.
[23] Arist. Rhet. 1, 2.
[24] Ency. Brit. Article on Rhetoric by Jebb.

ly the *epilogos* (peroration, or conclusion).[25] There is some dispute, however, as to the number of these divisions ascribed to Corax. For instance, Doxopatros and an unknown writer attribute to him only a tripartite division—exordium, argument, and peroration.[26] Further, after a careful study of all available sources Hamberger came to the conclusion that Cicero, Sopatros, Troilos, and others had drawn from a common reservoir, namely, Aristotle's lost work; and that the treatise credited Corax with seven divisions: *prooimion, prokataskeuē, prokatastasis, katastasis, agōnes, parekthesis, epilogos.*[27] A little study of these terms, however, will make it evident that the first three are equivalents, practically synonyms, and that *katastasis* is so nearly akin to *diēgēsis* that the number after all is really five. If Aristotle ever did mention in his lost *Synagōgē technōn* that Corax divided speeches into seven parts, he took great pains to state in his own Rhetoric that "a speech has two parts. It is necessary first to state the case (*prothesis*) and then to prove it (*pistis*). * * * It appears then that the only indispensable parts of a speech are the statement of the ease and the proof. These are the only proper characteristic parts; but if more are added, they must not exceed four, viz: exordium, exposition, proof, and peroration."[28] Whatever then may have been the number of divisions in that first treatise it is safe to say that Corax, after listening to the pleas in the courts and to the arguments in the legislatures, conceived that out of the mass of complicated details, out of the evidence direct, documentary, and circumstantial, a logical order could be made which would probably apply in most cases. No one has been able to procure a better *dispositio* than the quintuplex, altho many attempts have been made, from the dual division of Aristotle centuries ago to that suggested by Winans in his recent work on Public Speaking.[29] Accordingly a teacher who places before his pupils the model arrangement of five parts for orations and debates is paying a tribute to the old Sicilian rhetorician.

[25] Rhet. Graec., Walz, IV, p. 12.
[26] Rhet. Graec., Walz, IV, p. 13.
[27] Hamberger: Die Rednerische Disposition, p. 38.
[28] Arist. Rhet. III, 13.
[29] The suggested outline of Winans, p. 452, is adapted especially to debate: I. The Approach. 1. Exordium, 2. Explanation, 3. Elimination of irrevalent matter, 4. Concessions, 5. Common Ground, 6. Issues, 7. Partition or proposition. II. Discussion. III. Conclusion. Note how minutely The Approach is divided, while no analysis is made of the Discussion.

There were probably other features of merit in the first treatise besides the definition of rhetoric and the dispositio, but unfortunately only one of them has survived. This surviving part is, however, so original, so fundamental, so far-reaching that the fame of Corax would rest secure had he given nothing else to science and to letters. In the beginning of this paragraph I used the word *probably,* having in mind that the surviving relic of the first treatise on rhetoric dealt with the principle or topic of probability. Indeed, it was Aristotle who remarked that the rhetorical system of Corax was composed of this topic, and then placed it among his array of fallacies. In order to make clear his contention he gave an illustration: "If the defendant is not liable to the charge brought against him, as, for instance, if a feeble person were to be tried for assault and battery, he defends himself upon the ground that it is improbable (that he a weak man should attack a strong one). Or if he be liable, as, for instance, if he be a strong man against whom the charge is brought, he argues that it is improbable, on the ground that it was sure to seem probable; and therefore knowing that he would be exposed to the suspicion he was less likely to bring upon himself an almost certain punishment."[30] To Aristotle this stock story from the rhetorics of the schools furnished evidence of faulty logic; he did not seem to grasp its real significance in human action. Before him there was a problem of assault in which the argument in one case would be that the probability of guilt was absolute (*eikos haplōs*) and in the other case was particular or relative (*eikos ti*). He saw that it might be possible for a scheming attorney to present a particular probability so adroitly that it would defeat an absolute probability. Such a procedure he regarded as immoral. "This in fact," he said, "is the meaning of converting the worse argument into the better."[31]

Plato, likewise, in the Phaedrus, failed to see the real bearing of Corax' principle, for he caused Socrates to relate with gusto the same story with variations, ascribing it however to Tisias. "If a weak, but courageous man, is brought to trial for having knocked down and robbed of his clothes, or purse, a strong and cowardly one, neither accuser nor accused is to tell the truth to the judges,

[30] Arist. Rhet. II, 24. Welldon, tr.

[31] See the defense of Protagoras, in Q. J. S., Ed. March, 1918, who maintained that every subject had two sides opposite and contradictory.

but the coward is to say that the other had assistance when he knocked him down; while the brave man must first prove the fact of his being alone, and then appealing to his favorite probable, exclaim, 'Why, how could a man like myself have ever thought of attacking a man like that?' But the other, you may be sure, is not to plead his own cowardice, but rather essay some fresh falsehood, which will, perhaps, supply the adversary with the means of refuting the accusation. And so, whatever be the matter on hand, this, Tisias says, is the style of pleading warranted by art."[32] For this art Socrates had nothing but scorn. He apparently never discovered that his attacks should have been directed at men instead of at rhetoric. "For men," he says, "intending to be competent speakers, there is not the slightest occasion at all to do with the truth, about actions just or good * * * For in courts of justice, they say, no one troubles himself in the least degree with the truth of these matters, but only with what is plausible, that is to say, with what is likely * * * Whatever you say, it is the *probable* that you must chiefly aim at, and pay no regard at all to the true."[33]

Having thus paid his respects to the schools of rhetoric, at least to the lessons taught in them, Plato then trips himself neatly, for he defines the thing he is condemning. "The *probable*, he says, "means that which accords with the opinion of the many," and "this vaunted *probability* of yours only made itself felt in the minds of the many by virtue of its resemblance to the truth."[34] On account of these definitions one might concede that Plato was not really attacking probability itself, but the misuse of it by tricky speakers, by the shyster lawyers of his day; for he must have known, as Aristotle should have known, that direct, unimpeachable evidence (that is, absolute probability) is difficult to obtain, and that most audiences and juries are swayed by the particular probabilities of a case. Indeed, Aristotle himself bears witness to the importance in human affairs of probabilities, for he devoted a portion of his Organon—the Topics—"to discover a method by which to syllogize about every proposed problem from probabilities."[35] He defines his

[32] Plato, Phaed. 273. Wright, tr.
Similar stories of altercations between young and old, strong and weak, rich and poor, violent and mild, are mentioned in Rhet. ad Alex. 36, evidently stock cases for use in schools.
[33] Phaed. 272. Jowett, tr.
[34] Phaed. 273.
[35] Arist. Topics I, 1.

term as follows: "Probabilities are those things which appear to all, or to most men, or to the wise, and to these either to all or the greater number, or to such as are especially renowned and illustrious."[36] Again, he defines it in the Rhetoric as "something that usually happens, altho the definition must not be stated, as it sometimes is, without qualification, but something that usually happens in such matters as are indeterminate."[37] If he had allowed that definition to stand on its own feet, he would never have condemned Corax for giving the world a false system of rhetoric.

Why did Aristotle run off at a tangent in his condemnation of the Sicilian? Perhaps he was at the time he wrote those lines in the throes of logical parturition. A casual reading of his Rhetoric will reveal the fact that a goodly portion of the immortal work is applied logic. In the application of logic to public address he employs probabilities in spite of his opinion that they are fallacious and immoral. That is to say, in theory he was opposed to the use of probabilities, but in actual practice he found it necessary to use them and to give instruction concerning them. For instance, he says "the orator must employ his speech in upsetting an opposite hypothesis."[38] To obtain skill in this he must practise on common topics (*koinoi tôpoi*), such as that of possibility and impossibility. One of these is the topic tending to show that a thing either has or has not occurred, a kind which is used especially in judicial oratory. The evidence used is that of likelihood (probability), as, "if it was a person's intention to do a thing, it may be argued that he did it, as there is always a probability that the intention was carried out."[39] It would seem that Aristotle is giving rules for using what he condemned. No matter how antagonistic he may have been in theory, in practice he was compelled to use the method of Corax. From this it may be seen that the Sicilian had given to speakers and writers of all ages a permanent principle, a practical method of handling the affairs of life. It was nothing new to any man, for all had used it every day, but Corax had the honor to be the first to set it down in a book. That principle or method which he called probability I shall now attempt to explain.

[36] Arist. Topics I, 3.
[37] Arist. Rhet. I, 2. Consult also the *Prior Analytics*, II, 27, on the use of *eikos*, *sēmeion*, and *tekmērion*. Cope's Introduction, 160-163, has an excellent exposition of these terms.
[38] Arist. Rhet. II, 18.
[39] Arist. Rhet. II, 19, 20. eikos gar ton mellonta kai poiēsai.

To explain and interpret probability one must plunge into the "boundless deep" of human experience, there to struggle feebly with the mighty waves. Already the definitions of the term according to Aristotle and Plato have been given. Other philosophers, ancient and modern, have exercised their wits in giving it a meaning. No one has done better than Locke in his Essay on Human Understanding, wherein he says that probability is nothing but the appearance of such an agreement or disagreement, by the intervention of proofs, whose connection is not constant and immutable, or at least is not perceived to be so, but is, or appears for the most part to be so, and is enough to induce the mind to judge the proposition to be true or false, rather than the contrary. * * * Probability is likeliness to be true; the first notation of the word signifying such a proposition for which there be arguments or proofs to make it pass, or be received for true. * * * The entertainment the mind gives this sort of proposition is called belief, assent, or opinion, which is admitting or receiving any proposition for true, upon arguments or proofs that are found to persuade us to receive it as true, without certain knowledge that it is so. * * * The grounds of probability are first, the conformity of anything with our own knowledge, observation, and experience. Secondly, the testimony of others, touching their observation and experience.[40]

An application of the definition to the illustration given by Aristotle will make clear that the plea of the feeble man in the assault case was probable, for it had the appearance of "likeliness" to the truth, as founded upon the experiences of men—that is, the weak seldom attack the strong. This position is not a universal, because the opposition could argue that the weak man might have committed the assault, because he would reason that the jury would not suspect him on account of his weakness. Likewise the plea of the strong man would have a likelihood of winning credence; but there could be the counter probability that he might have committed an assault because he was by nature a bully. It will be seen then that the jury in deciding cases would not be guided by unimpeachable evidence, that is, by Aristotle's absolute probability or certainty, but by their own "previous observation, experience, and by the testimony of others." That, at least, is the way juries do nowadays, and they probably acted in the same way in the days of Aristotle

[40] Locke, Essay on Human Understanding. Bk. IV, ch. 15.

and Plato. Corax then was only applying common sense when he wrote about probability. He knew that when men were at loggerheads absolute truth could seldom be found; but that the probabilities of the case decided the issue. If he were alive in our day, he might have the pleasure of reading that the Supreme Court of the United States has been so uncertain of the truth that they settled cases by a 5 to 4 vote.

Why a five to four vote? Why not make the decision unanimous? There are many reasons. The observations and experiences of men differ. They come to different conclusions because their early environments, education, family beliefs, temperaments, even physical health prevent them from seeing the same things in the same way. Some are radicals, others conservatives; some are cowardly, others brave; some look for what they think is right, others for what is expedient. Hence the voting is unanimous only in clear-cut cases, those with unmistakable absolute probability as "common observation in like cases and particular testimonies in that particular instance favor or contradict it."[41] An English jury hearing that a man had slipped and fallen while walking on ice would unanimously agree that such an accident might happen, for it would be within their own observation and experience; but the king of Siam when told by the Dutch ambassador "that the water in Holland would sometimes be so hard that men walked upon it, and that it would bear an elephant if he were there,"[42] was of the opinion that the ambassador was a liar. Such a phenomenon being contrary to the king's experiences, he would not have believed it though sworn to by a dozen ambassadors. If the Dutchman wanted to make his story probable, he would have to show his majesty an icicle or a film of ice, whereupon the mind of the king would have made an inductive leap from scanty evidence to a universal. Yet in doing so he might have fallen into the grave danger that Aristotle may have had in mind when he condemned particular probabilities. Errors may be made because the evidence is insufficient for certainty. Certainty, the universal, his logical mind demanded. Often he fell into error by accepting the testimony of too few particulars. Sometimes he thought he had the whole truth because based on some observation, as when he wrote that the back of the head is

[41] Locke, IV, 16, 9.
[42] Locke, IV, 15, 5.

empty and hollow * * * the brain is without blood * * * it is naturally cold to the touch * * * Man is the only animal with ears that cannot move them * * * Man is the only ambidextrous animal * * * Longlived persons have one or more lines which extend through the whole hand, short lived persons have two lines not extending through the whole hand.[43] There are many other cases dealing with physical phenomena in which Aristotle erroneously employs universals. They are simply indications of a tendency among all men, even of philosophers, to generalize from too few particulars. Modern scientists, having a greater knowledge of the universe than the ancients, would probably employ qualifying phrases, for they have come to know by long experience that many things which seem certain for a time are afterward found to be false, even with the evidence furnished by the senses. If this be true of trained scientists, how much more so will it be of those whose powers of observation have not been trained?

A personal illustration may not be out of place. Some months ago while making a call on a neighbor I happened to glance toward the window. I saw streaks extending downward, saw a paper whirled by the wind, heard a pattering sound, and smelled moisture. I knew then of a certainty that rain was falling, for three senses had furnished their data. Imagine my astonishment, when I left the house a few moments later, at finding the sun shining, the sidewalk dry, and the street dusty. Nonplussed I returned to the same position to repeat the observations. They were the same; yet a closer scrutiny developed the streaks into wire netting, the patter into the frying of meat in an adjoining room, and the odor of moisture into the vapor of a recent scrubbing of the floor. If now the evidence furnished by the senses can not be trusted, cannot give certainty, belongs in a large measure to the realm of probabilities, what shall we cay of the inferences of the mind from intangible material?

At this point we are forced to say that altho we are seldom sure of certainty, nevertheless we act as though we were sure, both in regard to tangible and to intangible things. We act in this way, dependent on probabilities, living in the sphere of particular probability as tho it was absolute. Shall we cease from action until we are sure that everything is certain? Long ago Cicero answered that

[43] Arist. The History of Animals, I, 13, 3, I, 9, 10, II, 1, 3.

question, for he wrote, "the wise man is often guided by what is *probable,* not being comprehended, nor perceived, nor assented to, but only *likely;* and unless a man acts on such circumstances there is an end to the whole of life. For what must happen? Has the wise man when he embarks on board ship a positive comprehension and perception in his mind that he will have a successful voyage? How can he? But suppose he goes from this place to Puteoli, thirty furlongs, in a seaworthy vessel, with a good pilot, and in fine weather like this, it appears *probable* (*probabile videatur*) that he will arrive safe. According to appearances of this kind then he will make up his mind to act or not to act."[44]

The illustration just used is found in the Academics, a work in which Cicero refers many times to Carneades. His interest in the distinguished Academician was two-fold, Carneades being an excellent orator as well as an eminent philosopher. His powerful voice and acute mind caused pupils to quit their own schools in order to listen to his lectures.[45] So effective was he that the Greeks sent him on an embassy to Rome. While there he incurred the wrath of Cato the Censor by haranguing one day in praise of justice and the next day proving it to be an odious institution. Thereby the philosopher was simply putting into practice the pedagogy of Protagoras and Corax: that every question has two sides and that there are probabilities on each side. To Cato's simple mind such teaching was dangerous to morals, hence he persuaded the senate to send Carneades back to Greece without delay. There he continued his heretical doctrines, for he taught that the imagination, the understanding and the senses deceive so frequently that they cannot be regarded as the infallible judges of truth. For the guidance of life only probabilities are attainable. These probabilities are the common agreements in men's sensations and experiences, which represent in some degree the truth. Carneades then began an analysis, distinguishing three degrees of probability:[46] 1st. That which is probable in itself.[47] This is the kind termed by Locke "matter-of-fact" * * *, "the argument from the nature of things themselves," as fire arms, iron sinks in water—things not controverted by any-

[44] Cicero, Academics, II, 31.
[45] Diog. Laert., Vit. Phil., Carneades.
[46] Ency. Brit., Article on Carneades.
[47] Sextus Empiricus, Adv. Math., VII, 171.

body.[48] 2nd. That which is probable and uncontradicted (*aperispastos*), literally "not pulled aside," not distracted when compared with others.[49] This is the condition when the testimony of many reliable witnesses agrees; as, for instance, that men prefer their private advantage to the public good, that it is agreed by all historians concerning Tiberius that he did so and so.[50] 3rd. That which is probable, uncontradicted and thoroughly investigated and confirmed, as well in its several parts as in the relations to the subject out of which it arose, and without any circumstances being discovered which might militate against probability.[51] Accordingly, the highest degree of probability is possessed by an idea which after being analyzed in itself and tested in all possible combinations with others, appears to be wholly devoid of improbability.[52]

This attempt of Carneades to classify probabilities is of little value except as showing the philosophic mind at work on the problems of life, hunting vainly for a solution. Locke saw this when he wrote that "circumstances, reports, different qualifications, tempers, designs, oversights, etc., of the reporters make it impossible to reduce to precise rules the various degrees wherein men give their assent. This only may be said in fine, that as the arguments and proofs, pro and con, upon due examination, nicely weighing every particular circumstance, shall to any one appear upon the whole matter, in a greater or less degree, to preponderate on either side; so they are fitted to produce in the mind such different entertainment as we call 'belief, conjecture, guess, doubt, wavering, distrust, disbelief, etc'."[53]

From the quotation just given one can easily see that Locke did not follow the lead of Carneades: probabilities were to him incapable of classification. Both of these men were philosophers and both were interested in the theological problems of their day. Others also, especially since the Renaissance, were interested in theology who, in attempting to solve its problems, seized on probabilities and the possibility of classifying them. Forgotten then was Corax and the application of his principle to the ownership of land, the

[48] Locke, IV, 16.
[49] Sext. Emp. Adv. Math., VII, 176, sqq.
[50] Locke, IV, 16.
[51] Sext. Emp., Adv. Math., VII, 184.
[52] Ritter, Hist. of Phil., III, 618.
[53] Locke, IV, 16, 9.

guilt of criminals, and the policies of state, as the clergy lost themselves in the bogs of casuistry. They began by asking themselves for definitions of sin. Were there two kinds, venial and mortal: that is, pardonable and unpardonable? What were the boundaries between the two? Could the priest forgive sin? In the attempt to define sins and to adjudicate penalties and pardons the learned fathers descended the spirals of Inferno until they stood in the very presence of Satan himself. On the downward path they invented direction of intention, mental reservation, and Probabilism.

We must digress for a moment, in the interest of future clergymen, to see the bearing of Corax's teaching in the realm of religion. There arose a school of thinkers in the church who were called Probabilistae, men who maintained that a certain degree of probability as to the lawfulness of an action was enough to secure against sin. This certain degree could be furnished by a single very grave doctor who having made a special study of the subject could give a good and sufficient reason.[54] Whenever there was doubt as to the law, or disagreement among the learned experts on morality a man might adopt the opinion in favor of liberty with absolute assurance that he was justified in doing so, even though there was greater probability on the opposite side.[55] Of course, in such cases there would always be two sides and consequently those who were fond of ecclesiastical disputation would find themselves in clover. It was utterly impossible for men to agree when they attempted to systematize morality. For instance, a discussion arose as to whether it was sufficient to love God once in one's life (Vasquez), or thrice (Henriquez), or once every three years (Coninch), or once every year (Mendoza). As indicated by the authorities in the parentheses each view had its supporters, whereupon Escobar held that a confessor was morally bound to give absolution on any of these terms. Thus with probability on its side a soul might in nearly every case squeeze its way into Paradise.

Against this doctrine of Probability the Sorbonne in 1620 protested, but without effect. The world seemed to be waiting for the Provincial Letters of Blaise Pascal, a work in which he impaled the learned doctors both by direct lunge and by skilful riposte. His attack was just as much needed as was that of Plato against the

[54] Pascal, Provincial Letters, V.
[55] Ency. of Religion and Ethics, Probabilism, by G. H. Joyce, S. J.

Bad Sophists of his day. Pascal showed that the doctrine of Probabilism always made it possible for a sinner to find an authority who would decide in his favor. The system had all the advantages referred to in the old saying: "When one god presses hard, another brings relief." As an example of this, note the working out of the doctrine of Probabilism in a case of assassination. Here was a crime which was so heinous that the perpetrator was denied sanctuary in the church. How could he escape damnation? How could he secure absolution for his crime? The probability of innocence was established by interpreting the word assassin as follows: "Are assassins unworthy of sanctuary in churches? Yes, by the bull of Gregory XIV. they are. But by the word assassin we understand those that have received money to murder one; and accordingly such as kill without taking any reward for the deed, but merely to oblige their friends, do not come under the category of assassins."[55a] By such monstrous perversions of Probabilism it was possible to legalize theft, assault, rape and murder.

There were those who saw this flaw and who sought a way of escape. They began a hedging process by pleading for Probabiliorism. According to this principle of morals a man was bound in the presence of several alternatives to choose the one which had the greatest likelihood of being right; that is, there being several opinions, he should be guided by the reasons and the scholars militating in favor of the more probable opinion.[56] Then there arose a faction called the Aequiprobabilistae who took a middle ground, that in a balance of opinion the less safe opinion might be lawfully followed, provided it be as probable, or nearly as probable as its opposite.[57] Besides these systems were two others differing *toto coelo*: Laxism and Rigorism. Of these the Laxists maintained that it was justifiable to follow any probability, however slight, in favor of liberty. They were somewhat akin to the Latitudinarians of the English church. On the other hand the Rigorists maintained that in doubtful cases the strictest course is always to be followed.

In order to illustrate these grades of ecclesiastical probability I draw from Viscount St. Cyres:[58] "Suppose, for instance, that some casuists held it wrong to dance on Sunday, while others held

[55a] Pascal's Letters, VI.
[56] Ency. of Relig. and Ethics. Also Catholic Ency.
[57] New English Dictionary.
[58] Ency. Brit. XVI, 679.

it perfectly lawful. There were four ways of answering the question. Strict moralists—called rigorists, or 'tutiorists'—maintained that the austerer opinion ought always to be followed; dancing on Sunday was certainly wrong if any good authorities had declared it to be so. Probabiliorists maintained that the more general opinion ought to prevail, irrespectively of whether it was the stricter or the laxer; dancing on Sunday was perfectly lawful if the majority of casuists approved it. Probabiliorists argued that any opinion might be followed, if it could show good authority on its side, even if there was still better authority against it; dancing on Sunday must be innocent if it could show a fair sprinkling of eminent names in its favor. The fourth and last school—the 'laxists'—carried the principle one step farther and held that a practice must be unobjectionable if it could prove that any one 'grave Doctor' had defended it; even if dancing on Sunday had hitherto lain under the ban of the church, a single casuist could legitimate it by one stroke of his pen. Liguori's great achievement lay in steering a middle course between the various extremes. The gist of his system, which is known as 'equiprobabilism,' is that the more indulgent opinion may always be followed, whenever the authorities in its favor are as good, or nearly as good, as those on the other side. In this way he claimed that he had secured liberty in its rights without allowing it to degenerate into licence. However much they might personally disapprove, zealous priests could not forbid their parishioners to dance on Sunday, if the practice had won widespread toleration; on the other hand, they could not relax the usual discipline of the church on the strength of a few unguarded opinions of too indulgent casuists."

Such then was the peculiar phase which the doctrine of probability assumed in the Roman church. As an attempt to systematize morality it was a dismal failure; yet there was a modicum of good in the procedure, for it represented a sincere effort to help the clergy in the confessional as they dealt with the sins of men.

While the Jesuits of the continent were wrestling with probabilities in morals, Bishop Butler of England was laboring over his great work on *The Analogy of Religion, Natural and Revealed,* a work which when published profoundly influenced the thinking of millions. The modest bishop protested that he did not profess to give an absolute demonstration that the Holy Scriptures were the word

of God, so much as a *probable* proof. This probable evidence he thought varied from the highest moral certainty to the lowest presumption. That which chiefly constitutes probability is expressed in the word likely, i. e., like some truth or true event. Again, probable evidence in its very nature affords but an imperfect kind of information; and is to be considered as relative only to beings of limited capacities. For nothing which is the possible object of knowledge, whether past, present, or future, can be probable to an infinite intelligence; since it is in itself, certainly true, or certainly false. But to us, *probability is the very guide of life.* The decision in a case rests on the weight of evidence, for there are many probabilities, which cannot be confuted, i. e., shown to be no probabilities, and yet may be overbalanced by greater probabilities on the other side. Thus did the keen minded Bishop speak in the introduction to his immortal work. He then proceeded to draw from analogies the proofs of future life, revelation, miracles, and other theological propositions, holding that the weight of probability lies with the affirmative.[59] Students of Argumentation who may be interested in Theology will find *The Analogy* a splendid supplement to their text-books. They will see the doctrine of Corax applied in a manner far different from what the originator had ever dreamed.

Every question having two sides, however, as Protagoras had long ago written, there would naturally arise an opposition to Bishop Butler. This opposition also arose in England, where the philosopher Hume went over the ground carefully and came to the conclusion that the probabilities were all negative. His course of reasoning runs as follows: "We are determined by custom to transfer the past to the future, in our inferences; where the past has been entirely regular and uniform, we expect the event with the greatest assurance, and leave no room for any contrary supposition. But where different effects have been found to follow from causes, which to appearances are exactly similar, all these various effects must occur to the mind in transferring the past to the future, and enter our consideration, when we determine the probability of an event.[60] Applying his reasoning to miracles he concluded that they are not in accord with the regularity and uniformity of nature, and that "no testimony for any kind of a miracle has ever amounted to

[59] Hume's *Analogy.* I have used largely his own words.
[60] Hume's Essays, Sect. VI. *Of Probability.*

a probability."[61] Of course, such an attitude brought upon the head of Hume the anathemas of all believers in the miraculous. A curious result in clerical circles has been the tendency to *interpret* supernatural occurrences, to use them as stories from which helpful lessons may be drawn, rather than admit their improbability, or cast them in toto from the Canon of Holy Scripture. By thus approaching Hume's position the clergy have rendered miracles more acceptable.

A moment ago Butler's expression, "probability is the very guide of life," was used. Strange to say in that statement the orthodox bishop finds himself in agreement with Voltaire, the freethinker. That sceptical, some say atheistical, Frenchman once wrote an "Essay on Probabilities in Judicial Proceedings," in which he used these words:

"Presque toute la vie humaine roule sur des probabilités. Tout ce qui n'est pas démontré aux yeux, ou reconnu pour vrai par les parties évidemment intéressées à la nier, n'est tout au plus que *probable*. * * * L'incertitude étant presque toujours le partage de l'homme, vous détermineriez très-rarement, si vous attendiez une démonstration. Cependant il faut prendre un parti: et il ne faut pas le prendre au hasard. Il est donc nécessaire à notre nature faible, aveugle, toujours sujette à l'erreur, d'étudier les probabilités avec autant de soin, que nous apprenons l'arithmétique et la géométrie."[62]

Inasmuch as Voltaire was discussing judicial inquiries it may not be out of place to use his remark as a transition to the next phase of the subject: the application of probabilities in law. * * * In so doing we return, after wandering in the fields of philosophy and theology, to the original sphere. We enter the court, behold the jury, and listen to the impassioned pleas of the opposing attorneys. At once we are struck by the uncertainties of the suits. Seldom is there a clearly proved case. Most of the legal disputes seem to have strong probabilities on each side. This circumstance, so attracted the keen mind of Corax that it lead him to base his work upon it. In making the effort he furnished the starting point for innumerable discussions and treatises on proof and evidence, in-

[61] Hume's Essays, Sect. X. *Of Miracles.*
[62] Voltaire: Works, XXVI, p. 457. Quoted by Gladstone in an article on *"Probability as the Guide of Conduct"* in the *Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 5:908.

slaves can testify that he did not leave his house on the night of the murder. Wherefore he did not commit the crime.[63]

It is rather amusing to note the triumph of the negative as the trump card of an alibi is slipped from its sleeve. In modern practice all the cards are supposed to be laid on the table, except in college debates. Lest the reader should think that this is a mere classroom exercise I need only to refer to an actual case—Antiphon's Murder of Herodes—in which the very same methods are used.

Such treatment of causes developed the sophistry which produced the raw material out of which Aristotle created his Rhetoric and logical treatises. But before the analyst appeared, the philosopher Plato had already condemned the sophists and their rhetoric. They seemed to him plausible, fallacious reasoners who puzzled inquirers after truth and weakened faith in the current religion. Curiously enough while he was condemning these teachers of eloquence, philosophy and politics, he was himself producing the greatest sophist of all—the renowned Socrates. He did not seem to understood that those who discussed the conduct of life were moral teachers, that those who lectured on methods of handling evidence were educating the future leaders of the state; that men who gave the youth practice in weighing probabilties, imaginary and real, were developing good citizens. It is only fair to say that Plato's antagonism diminished as he grew to maturity and began to comprehend the real actions of the human mind. This is revealed very plainly in "The Sophist," wherein he describes the "minister of the art of intellectual purification, the teacher who cross-examines and refutes his pupils until he has freed them from self-conceit, and forced them to think for themselves."[64] A splendid picture indeed of Corax in his Syracusan classroom!

The students of that class-room were forced to think for themselves, and probably wanted to, because each man expected to become his own lawyer. They knew that they could not secure the necessary experience by reciting passages of Homer, but by the keen conflict of man face to face with his fellow. They perceived that law suits occurred between clients whose views were diamet-

[63] Good digests of the Tetralogies may be found in Jebb's Attic Orators, I, 48 sqq., Jevons' Hist. of Greek Lit., p. 374, Müller and Donaldson's Hist. of the Lit. of Ancient Greece, II, 106.

[64] Plato, The Sophist, 230.

rically opposite. Each client or his attorney seemed to be bound to present in the most probable manner the case. There is no "ipse dixit" in the court room as there often has been in the pulpit. Nowhere is this better shown than in Erskine's Defense of Lord Gordon. Did the defendant, in the language of the indictment, "maliciously and traitorously compass, imagine and intend to raise and levy war and rebellion against the King?" His guilt must be determined according to law, not upon "conjectural presumptions or inferences, or strains of wit; but upon plain and direct proof. * * * For the King, Lords, and Commons," said Lord Coke, "did not use the word *probably,* for the common argument might have served; but *provably,* which signifies the highest force of demonstration." The evidence of guilt was *improbable* for it consisted of "a few broken interrupted, disjointed words, without context or connection—uttered by the speaker in agitation and heat—heard, by those who relate them to you, in the midst of tumult and confusion —and even those words, mutilated as they are, in direct opposition to, and inconsistent with repeated and earnest declarations delivered at the very same time and on the same occasion, related to you by a much larger number of persons, and absolutely incompatable with the whole tenor of his conduct." In a similar manner Webster, defending the Kenistons against a charge of assault and robbery, said, "There is no end to the series of *improbabilities* growing out of the prosecutor's story." * * * "If the jury are satisfied that there is the highest *improbability* that these persons could have had any previous knowledge of Goodridge, or been concerned in any previous concert to rob him; if * * *; if * * *; if * * *; it will be for the jury to say whether they can pronounce them guilty." These cases are only typical of the thousands tried every year in courts, wherein the jury or the judge must decide by the probabilities.

Having drifted into the court room we will try to find a channel thru which to guide our craft. We note that two beacons light the way to decisions: one being positive proof, the other being proof circumstantial. For instance, how carefully the Constitution provides that "No warrant (for searches and seizures) shall issue, but upon *probable* cause, supported by oath and affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized." In this use of the word probable it would

seem that the original meaning, *probus,* is used. Curiously enough from the same root come provable and probable. If the positive proof is lacking, then circumstantial evidence must be used, of which there may be presumptions violent and presumptions probable; that is, "those arising from such circumstances as usually attend the fact."[65] At this point the rocks in the channel begin to obstruct the way; wherefore we must call for the assistance of some legal lights. Judge McGowen speaks thus: "It seems to us that there is a difference between probability and proof. The object of both words is to express a particular effect of evidence, but proof is the stronger expression. All the dictionaries give different definitions of probability. That of Worcester is 'Likelihood of the occurrence of an event in the doctrine of chance, or the quotient obtained by dividing the number of favorable chances by the whole number of chances; and one in Webster is 'Likelihood, appearance of truth, that state of a case or question of fact which results from superior evidence or preponderation of argument on one side, inclining the mind to receive it as the truth, but having room to doubt.' 'Demonstration produces certain knowledge, proof produces belief, and probability opinion'."[66] "Probable cause is the existence of such facts and circumstances as would excite the belief in a reasonable mind, acting on the facts within the knowledge of the prosecutor, that the person charged was guilty of the crime for which he was prosecuted."[67] Probable cause is such a state of facts, as would lead a man of ordinary caution and prudence, acting conscientiously, impartially, reasonably and without prejudice, upon facts within the party's knowledge, to believe, or entertain an honest and strong suspicion that the person accused is guilty.[68] Probable cause means not prima facie evidence, or such evidence as in the absence of exculpatory proof would justify condemnation, it means reasonable grounds of presumption that the charge is or may be well founded.[69]

From these definitions by eminent authorities one may perceive a substantial agreement with the original idea of Corax: likelihood of truth must always be present in order to be convincing.

[65] Blackstone's Commentaries, III, § 371. Good illustrations may be found in the foot notes of Sharwood's Edition.
[66] Am. and Eng. Ency. of Law, Vol. 19.
[67] Am. and Eng. Ency. of Law, Vol. 14.
[68] Hilliard on Torts, ch. 12, § 18.
[69] Am. and Eng. Ency. of Law, Vol. 14. Malicious Prosecution.

"Lest men suspect your tale untrue,
Keep probability in view."

Indeed there is no way of escape from such a condition, for direct first hand evidence, unimpeachable, is generally very difficult to secure. Shakespeare, with his marvelous insight into human action, understood this, for Antony presented such plausible evidence of the deeds of Caesar that the mob was persuaded that he "was not ambitious." Brabantio believed that Othello had won his daughter probably by charms and drugs. How did Cleopatra die?

Caesar: If she had swallow'd poison, 'twould appear
By external swelling; but she looks like sleep,
As she would catch another Antony
In her strong toil of grace.
Dolabella: Here, on her breast,
There is a vent of blood, and something blown;
The like is on her arm.
Guard: This is an aspic's trail; and these fig leaves
Have slime upon them, such as the aspic leaves
Upon the caves of Nile.
Caesar: Most *probable,*
That so she died; for her physician tells me
She hath pursued conclusions infinite
Of easy ways to die.[70]

Again the master speaks from the depth of some awful experience concerning the death of Gloster:

"See, his face, black, and full of blood;
His eyeballs farther out than when he lived,
Staring full ghastly like a strangled man:
His hair unrear'd, his nostrils stretch'd with struggling;
His hands abroad displayed, as one that grasp'd
And tugg'd for life, and was by strength subdued.
Look, on the sheets, his hair, you see, is sticking;
His well-proportion'd beard made rough and rugged,
Like to the summer's corn by the tempest lodged.
It cannot be, but he was murder'd here:
The least of all these signs were *probable.*"[71]

[70] Antony and Cleopatra, V, 2, 356.
[71] Henry VI, Part II, Act III, 2, 178.

If probable signs are evidence in law, what might be said of them in other lines? Any scholar who has delved into the mysteries of textual criticism knows that he is soon in a maze of probabilities as to the exact words of the original manuscript. He must apply commonsense, must weigh, sift, even guess, as he meets errors of emendation, transposition, omission, insertion, substitution, confusion of letters, and contractions.[72] Let him invade the realm of Sociology; he will soon be entangled in the problems of unionism, immigration, penology, pauperism, and divorce. Touching the field of Economics he will no longer wonder why it has been called the "dismal science," especially when he listens to the learned authorities discussing the probabilities of reducing the high cost of living. Politics will give him the night-mare if he tries to solve the problems of suffrage, finance, or civil service. What are the probabilities concerning the origin of man? Did he evolve, or was he created by divine fiat, from the dust of the earth? Whence came the various races if all had a common progenitor? The teacher of mathematics finds whole text-books on Probabilities, dealing among other things with the flipping of coins and statistics of birth and death. Insurance of all kinds is based on probabilities determined by actuarial experience.[73] Note how a prospect must balance between the absolute and unrequited loss of the premium, if his house does not burn down, and the gain he will derive if the less probable contingency of a fire should be his lot. Drop into the stock market in order to watch the attempts to predict the trend of securities. All writers on stocks and bonds invariably use the word probable. How guarded they are in stating that there will probably be a good yield of corn, on account of the snow fall; that it is very probable that the demand will be great for sugar on account of the scarcity; that it is extremely probable that high prices will continue for another year. These predictions are often made after consulting "Old Probabilities," as the weather man is facetiously called, because everyone knows the possibility of flarebacks after the prognostications. It would seem that all that is exact in science has been attained by way of probabilities, from the discovery of a planet to the finding of a new element.[74]

[72] Lindsay's Introduction to Latin Textual Emendation gives an excellent presentation of the difficulties met in reaching the original text of Plantus.

[73] De Morgan. Logic of Chance. Quart. Rev. 64: 285.

[74] Jevons: The Principles of Science, ch. X. The Theory of Probability.

All of these scientific phenomena have a mathematical background or are subject to experimentation, but when one enters the court room and presents a case to the jury, mathematics and experiment are of little value, for the conditions are wondrously intricate not only on account of the fallibility of human beings but because the heart of man is "deceitful above all things, and desperately wicked." Laplace, author of a profound work on Probability, realized the fact else he could not have written, "Tant de passions, d'intérêts divers et de circonstances compliquent les questions relatives à ces objets, qu'elles sont presque toujours insolubles." Because human actions are so frequently insoluble, they cannot be reduced to formulae, hence we are forced to adopt the method of Corax. Like the wily Ulysses who sailed past the home of the rhetorician centuries ago, we steer carefully between the Scylla of our doubts and the Charybdis of our fears, piloted by probabilities. How often the frail bark of life has been cast on the rocks or swallowed in the whirlpool on account of some slight error in judgment. Life is a die with a thousand sides: who knows which side will rise?

"He that toss'd you down into the Field,
He knows about it all—HE knows—HE knows!"

Having now reached the end of our tether it would not be out of place to tie the frayed ends of the discussion. In what way could this be better done than by uniting Corax' definition of rhetoric to his principle of probability? Rhetoric the art of persuasion. Persuasion to be attained by presenting matter with such a likeliness to truth that it will be accepted and if necessary acted upon. Could any pedagogical principle be sounder? Yet strangely enough the principle has been well nigh forgotten. No modern texts on rhetoric mention it, altho they beat the bush in all direction striving to drive out the game. They contain pages on persuasion, showing how audiences may be won by a modest bearing, by a pleasant smile, by conciliatory remarks, by silvery tongue and graceful gesture, by sounding phrase and brilliant climax. Primarily they seem to agree that persuasion is largely emotional. Likewise they agree that conviction deals with the understanding. Rules are given to hammer these wedges into the mind. Yet the great rhetorical principle which might act as the sledge is hardly mentioned. The writers on rhetoric have apparently forgotten Corax' prob-

ability. Only here and there does one catch a glimpse of the word. Foster, for instance, states that evidence may prove possibility, probability, or actuality. No matter how strong your evidence may be on a really debatable proposition, it seldom proves more than a high degree of probability."[75] In some texts the word is used in connection with the argument from Cause to Effect under the term Antecedent Probability, losing sight of the fact that arguments from Sign and from Example are also dependent upon probability.

Now it might be possible to show that the foundation of rhetoric lies after all in making things appear true. Dimly do the writers perceive this when they use the words plausible, verisimilitude, or vraisemblance, striving thereby to indicate probability. They resort to antonyms, such as unlikely, inconceivable, incredible, unnatural, and unreal, to indicate improbability. It would seem that a whole text might be based upon the system of Corax. According to such a system narration must be treated so that events will happen in a probable manner. Descriptions must represent objects with a semblance to actuality. Argumentation must try to make audiences accept something as probable which they do not at the outset admit. They will at least be willing to admit that the preponderance of probabilities is on one side or the other. Exposition must state facts so clearly that the listener believes he understands them. In order to accomplish these purposes rules for the choice of words have been given—generally summed up in the expression, the right word in the right place; rules for the formation of sentences; rules for sincerity, vision, and beauty; rules for plots, situations and characterizations; rules for unity, coherence, and emphasis. All of these are valuable, for they help to persuade the mind that the ideas presented are probable.

Thus we have made our stumbling way over the infinite complex of human activities, following the trail of the ancient rhetorician. Instead of being a crow that "hatched out young birds in a nest to fly forth disagreeable and troublesome bawlers," as Cicero asserted, Corax gave to the world in his pedagogy the great principle that "probability is the guide of life." Strange it is that the paradox of Agathon becomes true:

> "It may be one would call it probable
> That many things improbable occur."

[75] Foster: Argumentation and Debating, p. 77.

MODERN ATTENTION TO PANTOMIMIC EXPRESSION

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THE American people, more than any other, have uttered in several different ways their cry for more attention to the development of art along pantomimic lines. We may cite four illustrations of the public demand for the training of the body and of its power of representation or appeal to the most used of the five senses, the eye, by calling to your attention the influence of the motion picture on American gestures; the various forms which the dance has assumed during recent years; the present attempt of the opera producers to coordinate graceful expression of the voice with those of the body; and, lastly, the impulse for pageantry which has been increasingly noticeable since the dawn of the 20th century. These are demonstrations of the modern public attention to pantomimic expression and evidences of the popular demand for the training of the body. We may call these, if we will, inartistic, lacking in all the true concept of art's relation to life, base in their forms of misrepresentation, and altogether foreign to established aesthetic standards. But malign them as we may we must recognize that they bear the marks of that universality which is the final measure of classicism. In many cases, is it not our fault that they remain the ridiculed interpretations which we decry? Is it not the obligation of the teacher of art to recognize the almost inaudible public plea, and quickly to seize and elevate the new expressions of a nation's aspiration to creative endeavor? Examination of these various forms which demand more attention to the art of pantomimic expression might well be worth our while.

From the inception of the motion picture business, which found its birth in the back alleys of art and in the gutters of artistic tradition, we have been able to observe, whether we willed or no, the remarkable strides it has taken toward artistic and industrial prominence. Commercially it now ranks fifth in the Nation's beehive.

Artistically we have not yet placed it, even if some of our most prominent exponents of dramatic interpretation have recognized it as the most facile medium of introduction to a hungry people. With this system of educating the public there has developed a concurrent education of the producers, but a defense of the moving picture as an art is not my purpose. I desire to show merely its influence upon a public that reads as it runs. In daily expression Americans have been given more or less to staccato gestures. Much of this tendency to the abrupt has now been displaced by an unconscious study of cause and effect on the screen. I have known a number of business men who would blush to admit that they had copied many bits of mannerism from some favorite actor of the "movie world." As an object lesson in various forms of thought transmission it has had its results. The debutante is no less affected than the athletic school girl, the suffrage speaker, or the woman's club president. As a constant source of development it is unparalleled. I believe that a closer observation of its influence on the people and their conscious or unconscious adoption of its pantomimic lessons would conduce to a greater receptivity of mind in the general public and in the student when the teacher attempts to define, illustrate and inculcate the principles of pantomimic training.

In turning to the dance as demonstrative of the universal American cry for more pantomimic expression, we face three particular phases,—general dancing, interpretative dancing, and that which, for lack of a better term at this time, I must call dramatic dancing.

General dancing, seeking new forms of Terpsichorean expression, has introduced such forms as the now old Bunny Hug, the Fox Trot, the Turkey Trot, the latter-day suggestive Shimmie, and other variations which arouse our disgust. Yet all of them are evidences of a creative public demand for interpretation of thought and emotions through the body, however misdirected or negatively expressed.

Interpretative dancing, we may say, belongs to the more impulsive school. It is a spontaneous aspiration to the purely aesthetic, and is indicative of the best conception and radiation of this demand.

The dramatic dance was not originally American, but was introduced into this country, I believe, by the various Russian ballets;

though undoubtedly inspired by an exotic demand of the American people. In the majority of cases these dances interpret tragedy through the power of the body, and are counterparts in pantomimic expression to the vocal expression of grand opera.

I have taken occasion to mention three types of dancing which are, to my mind, evidences of the universal cry for physical expression of thought in art. The dance has been with us always, but the recent universal attention and particular accentuation of the creative, are further evidences of the trend of the times, pantomimically speaking.

It is strange that the opera writers and conductors of Southern Europe, who in their daily lives are most expressive pantomimically, should neglect the body in training their prima donnas. Possibly the reason is based on some fallacy which prevents them from permitting the body to aid the voice in interpretation of score and libretto. On the other hand, the great Northern composer, who was equally gifted in dramatic interpretation, recognized justly the claims of the whole man in the interpretation of his noblest emotions and sufferings. It was left to Wagner to emphasize co-ordination in the world of opera, but since the Wagnerian operas, like some of the Browning poems, have a tendency to obscurity, (which, by the way, is no reflection upon the method of interpretation, but rather an exposition of the massiveness of theme) this great truth was lost or buried under the more obvious traditions of the operatic theatre. It has remained, then, for a later day and for contemporary American opera producers to emphasize the value of correct usage of the pantomimic functions, and to insist upon the physical as well as vocal training of the prima donna. This is indeed a hopeful sign, and one which I consider partially explanatory of the wide attention and reception given opera in this country today.

Colleges and universities, as well as community organizations, are almost universally seeking pageantry and its tableaux. While pageantry itself is old, the present American revival has certain distinctly new forms which are direct indications of the common demand for an art that appeals to sight rather than to hearing. All these may be cited as cardinal points of the modern demand for physical interpretation.

Some of the new manifestations have already received our

attention and approbation as fosterers of art, but we have failed to recognize their deeper significance and the possibilities that are wrapped up in them. The frank facing of the issues, and recognition of the significance contained in this complex and varied cry for pantomimic expression, will stimulate our own artistic endeavor; and produce, I am sure, a renaissance of our attention to the training of the body.

Of the two prime organs of sense, the eye and the ear, the eye is known to be the more facile agent of impression; the more sensitive and highly developed instrument. It is quicker both to receive the impression and to act as the forerunner of expression. No gesture, attitude, or phase of bearing, is properly introduced unless accompanied by a corresponding ocular demonstration, hence man's first search for truth in the expression of his fellows is the sincerity of the eye. Training and concentration may produce a wonderful similitude of truth in the thought which is to be given to another, but close observation of the eye invariably forms the final test of verity. Man is granted only two natural languages for the conveyance of thought and feeling. Undue stress should not be laid upon one at the expense of the other. The harmonious development of both, and the proper degree of co-ordination between them, will lead to a perfect balance between impression and expression. The tendency has been to deform the student by giving the weight of instructive attention to the training of the voice and its acquired language of words. The reason for this is not altogether apparent, but we find many illustrations of the fear of gesture in teachers who know nothing of the subject technically and who have seen too often the inferior methods and imitations that are used by others. These naturally tend to degrade the art, and to turn the attention of both teacher and student to tha form which is he more familiar. Even as the eye is the quicker and more sensitive of the two agents of impression, so the first reception of ideas is from the visual nerves. For this same reason the giving of thought must naturally appeal to the eye first, hence the deduction that pantomimic action should precede vocal expression.

Scientific cultivation of pantomimic expression should be not merely an attribute of the teacher of a particular art, but a vital function of all education, to be introduced into the Nation's pri-

mary schools as such. While the end of all education is the development of personality, there are two sides to this development, the reception and the manifestation of truth; or in other words, the impression and the expression of thought and feeling. The development of the one and the neglect of the other invariably results in deformity. Repression and constriction in the training of the child's emotions will be noticeable in voice as well as in poise; and wherever there has been a marked attempt at restriction of pantomimic activity, there have invariably followed awkwardness and faulty vocal conditions, frequently going even so far as defective speech.

Too often teachers who really believe seriously in the importance of co-ordinate bodily and vocal training have been compelled to forego their plans of development because the ground is not properly prepared for the sowing of the seed. Various reasons may be assigned for this unpreparedness, such as: incorrect ideas of the relation between voice and body, previous horrible examples of imitation and untruthful repression. The proper functioning of the body in the realm of thought-giving is of vital importance to the harmonious development of personality. Moreover, it is impossible to secure adequate vocal modulation without corresponding modulations of the body. I have known the Dean of the School of Expression to listen to a pupil's vocal rendition of a reading while gazing through a window on the street below. Without visual observation the student's bodily position, bearing, and gestures were commented upon critically and with a revelation of the most intimate insight. Through the modulation of the voice the teacher could interpret the faulty actions and conditions of the body. The teacher of song will insist upon certain corrections of bodily gesture, thereby showing his faith in the influence of the body on the voice and the relation between the two. The student who has no alteration in the texture of his body, no play of activity in the face, limbs or torso, no rhythmic physical responses to his impressions, and no pantomimic imitations and reactions to his vocal and verbal expressions, is as truly deformed as the crippled or the blinded.

Within the great centres of population on the Atlantic seaboard, a recent pronounced movement for the assimilation of the immigrant stock has based its efforts upon the teaching of English by pantomime. While only the most basic and representative forms

progressive grades. This would mean that all gesture is expansive, working from within out, and I am not sure yet but that this is true of the negative experiences as well.

This paper is not intended as an effort at research or a pronouncement of a method of training. It serves only as an introduction to the modern aspects of pantomimic expression from the point of view of the practical demand and the artistic supply. It would seem that a proper amount of research by competent exponents of the art would logically be the first step to take; that the development of correct balance between the two natural languages should be stimulated under the best modes of co-ordination; and that a proper standardization of the results should be formulated and enunciated as an essential to popular comprehension. A stimulation of active study and practice, beginning with universal attention in the public schools and involving the creation of advanced courses, for normal and artistic reasons, in the institutions of higher learning, would be the most effective method of approach. Doubtless there are many of you who can suggest more adequate means and clearer concepts of the need. Education is not the mere acquisition of facts; it is rather the conquest of a deeper and truer understanding of the purposes of human nature. The teacher performs the act of introduction, and leaves the student to prosecute his research. We underestimate the importance of stimulating inquiry. How often does the child ask "Why did you look at me like that?" or "What did you mean by putting your hand out so?" How often does the child imitate the eccentric walk or the peculiar pose of the head and then pause reflectively to ask "Why?" Should such interrogation be answered with a true exposition or by evasion? The development of the right gesture or bearing in the child is not a matter of the acquisition of facts, but of the love of freedom of expression. I was at one time associated with an instructor of English who was so abnormal in his carriage, and so stilted in his facial responses to thought, that he received not the ridicule of his students, but, on the contrary, the most profound pity. I had verification of this by voluntary information from the students in his classroom. Does this not indicate the value of co-ordination between body, voice, and speech? As one student expressed it, "I can't hear what he says for seeing how he acts." It should be

the aim of our art to secure external representation for the internal manifestation of an ideal. The basis of fallacy and misunderstanding of the subject rests on the desire to lay too much stress on the objective, whereas the objective, to be art at all, must be subordinated to the subjective. Suffice it to say that the great influence and development of the moving picture, the various forms of dancing, the demand for the tableaus and suggestions of pageantry, and the physical training of the American operatic stage, are sufficient indications of the public demand for study and training of the expressive elements of the body. The artistic need is obvious. A study of its function in education, and a true recognition of the needed advance, are essential to the teacher of Public Speaking in this swiftly moving era. It is vitally connected with the creative instinct, and is universal in time, place and race.

SYSTEMATIC TRAINING IN THE TREATMENT OF INCOORDINATIONS, ESPECIALLY OF SPEECH[1]

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A CHILD is born with his brain in a condition of blankness so far as conscious impressions are concerned. His life in utero developed the sub-conscious, the automatic controls of life activities. Sheltered, fed, warmed and shaped in his mother's body, he had no need of an independent existence. As soon as he is born he begins to receive sensations or impressions. The cold air hurts his lungs and throat and he gasps and breathes deeply and cries out. His eyes blink at the light of day, his tender skin reddens with the harsh winds, his lips and tongue feel the soft warm nipple and the smell of food is carried from his nose to his brain. He tastes his mother's milk and finds it good and satisfying and learns by experience, by doing, to satisfy his needs. He also learns to protest against the unpleasant things. His memory tells him that it is not pleasant to be wet, to be hungry or thirsty; so when in such a condition he protests by crying.

The very act of nursing requires the working together, or co-ordination of many muscles of the tongue, cheeks, lips, palate, throat and diaphragm, and the child who does not develop co-ordination is doomed to die for lack of nourishment.

We see then, the tremendous importance of muscular power, balance and rhythm, all making up coördination. The adult co-ordinates in every act of his life and usually is not conscious of any effort made. It is when the coordination is upset, when one is conscious that his muscles do not obey freely the dictates of his will, that he is upset, is aware that all is not right with him. To illustrate how much easier it is to do things with the hand that is trained to do them, try, if you are right handed, to write, crochet, sew or knit with the left hand.

[1] Address delivered to the Friday Morning Club, Los Angeles, April 20, 1920.

Such a condition as vertigo or a sense of disturbed relationship to surrounding objects or a disturbed idea of motion, is very common. It may be in-coördination of the big muscles that should keep the body erect and poised on the feet without conscious effort. It may be due to a toxin from a disordered digestion coming in contact with the delicate balance mechanism of the internal ear; the function of this set of three ear canals is so upset that vertigo results. This is the most common form of vertigo and is cured by the removal of the cause of the disordered digestion. Afterward a resumption of the normal relationship to environment relieves the individual of the sense of disordered motion.

Babies cannot put their fingers in their mouths until they acquire the ability by doing it. Perhaps it is the instinct the first time but repetition makes it a habit. Other coördinations such as holding up the head, sitting up, creeping and walking are learned after many failures; the muscles must be trained to obey the will, and practice must make the performance perfect. Once perfection is reached such acts as walking become automatic.

A very complex coördination is speech, which has been developed so as to enable us to send out our thoughts to others. Thoughts are made into words, by using the speech machine, which is made up of the diaphragm, the breath controlling muscle, (and by the way, "Thought flies on the wings of wind,") the lungs which hold the air like bellows, the vocal cords which cause the air to be thrown into vibration to make tone, and the palate, tongue, lips, teeth and nose which shape the tone into words. All of the different parts of the speech machine are controlled by muscular action and perfect speech depends on perfect coördination or working in harmony of all of the muscular systems comprising the speech machine. Disorders of the speech faculty may be associated with an organic disease of the nervous system, as in aphasia, where the voice is lost because of a brain disease. A blood clot pressing on any part of the brain that controls the speech machine, may cause a speech disorder. This is seen in paralysis of the right side of the body; the left side of the brain in its motor area being the seat of the blood clot.

In a paralysis of the muscles of the tongue, lips and cheek on one side, where the lesion is on one side of the smaller brain,

the cerebellum, speech may not be entirely lost, but is halting and like that of a person with a mouthful of hot potato.

Other forms of speech disorders are stammering and lisping where there is no demonstratable pathology of the brain or nervous system, but an in-coördination. Stammering usually comes on in children between the ages of four and nine and follows some illness like whooping cough, scarlet fever, measles or what not. The explanation according to Dr. Walter Swift is that while the patient is weakened by sickness, he tries to say something and makes a failure of it, or talks very indistinctly. The fact may be called to his attention and he tries harder to speak plainly, using an excess of energy that overcharges the centers governing the muscles of the speech machine and a disordered rhythm or in-coördination results. If not removed quickly, by the child getting stronger and quieter, the trouble may become a habit and the child a confirmed stammerer.

The care of speech troubles is first, to have as perfect speech in our homes and schools as possible, to avoid rapid nervous talk, to speak slowly and distinctly especially to children, to guard the little ailments especially during convalescence, to see that no speech trouble occurs and if it does, to begin the proper re-education of the speech mechanism as soon as possible.

Other mechanisms concerned in speech disorders that require re-education are the auditory, kinesthetic, and the visual. According to good authorities, there is in stammering an auditory amnesia or forgetfulness of the proper sounds, especially of the vowels. For this reason drills are given on vowels, and to improve the quality and quantity of tone definite instruction on voice placement is not amiss.

A definite lack of kinesthetic or muscle movement sense can be observed in every stammerer. There is an in-coördination of several muscular systems; i. e., the respiratory, the phonatory, the articulatory and probably the auditory also, when we remember the function of the delicate muscles of the middle ear in keeping the ear drum taut.

The disordered muscle sense impressions are stored up in the brain and they must be removed and the correct impressions recorded a sufficient number of times to form a good habit.

To this end we make use of the fact that several brain centers

concerned in speech are neighbors in the motor area of the brain. The centers for the hand, arm and face, the tongue, lips and cheeks, all touch and perhaps overlap. They are intimately connected by multitudes of nerve fibers. It follows then that when we send impulses to a certain center, some of the impulses are transferred or relayed to neighboring centers. Complicated reactions are set up. In the case of stammerers, whose inhibitions are weak, we see the repetition of initial sounds, or any sounds, associated with frightful grimaces, puckering of the lips, spasm of the tongue and face, etc. All these muscular in-coördinations call for careful patient re-education.

The visual factor also requires examination and suitable treatment. Stammerers should be questioned as to their visual imagery. Do they or do they not have the ability to form a mental picture of words or sounds? Space prevents a discussion of methods of treatment of this condition.

Cases of paralysis with loss of speech should have treatment for the preservation of the speech machinery so that it may not die from disuse. Gymnastics for the various muscle groups, the tongue muscles, the cheeks, lips and tongue, must be practiced faithfully so that the "way to talk" may not be forgotten and lost. Diaphragm breathing should be taught to every child and is especially useful in the case of speech defects.

Speech correction not only improves the speech but also the mind of every case of mental retardation. This has been proved in the schools of Cleveland, Ohio, and in my own practice, in cases of nervous and feeble--minded children. Stammering in very young children often results from nervous stress and strain, great fright, the imitation of others and sometimes from accidents. Almost all of these things can be prevented. Accidents will happen in the best of families; but the imitation of another case can easily be stopped by the parents; nervous stress and strain can be eliminated by proper home hygiene, which when put into practice has been known to stop a case of stammering in two weeks. Great strain from fright can be avoided by having the companions of children refrain from purposely frightening them and after an unavoidable fright, it can be minimized by proper conversation and advice after that fright has occurred.

The subject of speech correction should be under the Board of

Education and in charge of a Specialist on the subject, preferably a physician. He should train teachers to supervise the speech correction in the schools especially in the kindergarten and primary grades where the speech disorders first develop. Prevention of excessive strain by insisting on the resting of children who have had minor ailments, measles, whooping cough, etc., should be insisted on. If the speech defect, especially stammering, is not removed in a short time, it becomes chronic and is very hard to overcome except in a long course of training in correct speech.

Speech training develops not only the speech faculty, but the mind. I have even used speech training in the mental training of morons and feeble-minded children with benefit. The first thing in the treatment of these exceptional children is to get their attention and as speech is a motor activity, a start is made with the motor of speech or diaphragm breathing. To get morons to use their diaphragms I have used artificial birds and toy air-planes and paper butterflies suspended by a string from a hook in the ceiling in such a manner that they could be lowered and raised by the teacher. The moron, lying on his back is told to see whether he can make the bird flap its wings, the air-plane rise in the air and the butterfly soar, by blowing on them. The various objects are raised and the moron in his eagerness, blows and blows getting up on his hands and knees, then standing and stretching up toward the ceiling, blowing and using his diaphragm as the objects ascend.

To develop rhythm the teacher plays the piano and the pupil beats a drum or uses cymbals, while vocalizing in time to the music.

Motor training also develops will power, memory, muscle and nerve power and association faculty. In other words, there is a big new field for the Speech Specialist in the education of mentally deficient children. In the near future, Speech Specialists will be found on the advisory boards of mental hospitals, reform schools, juvenile halls, and other institutions dealing with mentally defectives.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON COLLEGE ENTRANCE CREDIT*

J. WALTER REEVES
Peddie Institute, Hightstown, N. J.

IT WAS my good fortune last year to be asked to present a paper at the National Convention at Chicago on the subject of college entrance credit for Public Speaking work done in secondary schools. At that time I tried to set forth three good reasons why the colleges should give entrance credit for this work. Before I come to the theme of the present report, I will briefly summarize those reasons in order that we may fully understand the present paper.

1. College entrance credit for work in Public Speaking done in secondary schools would result in much better work in those schools, for it would make it possible to give more time to the subject. As it is at the present, the secondary schools are kept busy with those subjects that are required for entrance by colleges and but one period a week is generally given to Public Speaking. The work would assume a dignity that it does not now have and which it cannot have under the present circumstances. There would also be an incentive for the teachers, for they would have a definite goal to work toward, i. e., getting students ready for college.

2. Better work could be done in colleges, for the college teachers would not have to waste time on fundamentals, but could begin where the secondary schools left off.

3. If colleges gave entrance credit, they naturally would demand that the work be somewhat standardized. This would be a great benefit to the work in secondary schools, for it would do away with haphazard courses and haphazard teaching. It would mean a definite teaching toward a definite end rather than an indefinite teaching with no particular end in view. It would go still further, for it would tend toward the standardization of the schools where the teachers received their preparation.

* Reprints of this article can be bought from the Business Manager of the QUARTERLY. Write Professor Ray K. Immel, Ann Arbor, Mich.

I tried to indicate in the paper of last year that if colleges generally gave secondary schools recognition in this work, Public Speaking would take its place beside the other departments in such schools and the effect would be for the betterment of the work everywhere.

The paper included a recommendation that resolutions be drawn up urging serious consideration of the matter and these resolutions be sent to college presidents. The subject was referred to the resolution committee and the matter was finally tabled along with the subject of freshman courses in colleges.

The President of the National Association for last year seemed to feel that the matter was worthy of further investigation and consideration, and appointed a committee to take the subject up, directly with college heads. Since the members of the committee ranged from the University of Southern California on the west to Dartmouth on the east, co-operation was almost impossible. However, with the approval of the other members of the committee, the following questionnaire was sent out:

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Do you give entrance credit for work in Public Speaking done in secondary schools?

2. If you do not give entrance credit, will you kindly give your reason, setting the same forth at length?

3. If you do give credit, how much do you allow?

4. Do you not believe that better and more profitable work in Public Speaking could be done in college if a knowledge of the fundamentals of the work was gained in the secondary schools?

The following outlines of courses were appended to the questionnaire that they might possibly serve as a basis for courses that colleges would be willing to recognize as fulfilling requirements for entrance credits:

SUGGESTED COURSES

a. An elementary course in the oral interpretation of literature with emphasis placed upon the manner of best presenting the thought of the author. Through this work should be interspersed short extempore talks with careful attention given to good enunciation and proper pronunciation.

b. A course in the fundamentals of Argumentation and Debate with about half of the time given to the theory and the other half to practice debates in the class.

c. A course in the study and practice of the proper parliamentary procedure in the organizing and conducting of a town meeting, club or society.

d. A short course in the construction and delivery of formal address and after-dinner speeches.

COMMITTEE:

H. S. WOODWARD, Western Reserve University,
J. P. RYAN, Grinnell College,
H. N. WELLS, University of Southern California,
(Ch.) J. WALTER REEVES, Peddie Inst., Hightstown, N. J.

This questionnaire was sent out to about forty-five representative colleges and universities, twenty-eight of which answered. Out of the twenty-eight that answered, fifteen of them gave recognition in some form. They are as follows:

Cornell University: Entrance credit is given.

Case School of Applied Science: Credit is given in connection with English, but not under the name of Public Speaking.

Colgate University: Credit is not given as a rule, but occasionally a slight amount of credit is allowed.

Illinois College: Credit is given without conditions.

Miami University: Credit is given willingly.

Mount Holyoke College: Entrance credit by examination is given in some cases.

Ohio Wesleyan: Credit is given if the secondary school is in the accredited list of schools.

University of Denver: Credit is given without conditions.

University of Michigan: No entrance credit is allowed, but advanced standing is given.

University of Pennsylvania: Entrance credit is given if the work counts toward graduation in the particular school where the student has been prepared.

University of Wisconsin: One unit of entrance credit is allowed.

Western Reserve: Entrance credit is given in connection with English.

Washington and Jefferson: Credit is allowed in connection with English.

Wooster College: Less than a unit is occasionally allowed.

Valparaiso University: Limited entrance credit is allowed.

I will now name some of the colleges that do not give credit and give some of their reasons.

Amherst College: The Public Speaking work in Amherst does not presuppose any preliminary work.

Boston University: Courses have not been standardized in secondary schools, and examinations hard to manage.

Dickinson College: Students mostly come from high schools, where in most cases, the preparation has not been adequate.

Columbia University: Courses have not been standardized in secondary schools.

Grinnell College: Lack of standard in secondary schools.

Hamilton College: Not enough work done in secondary schools to warrant giving special credit. Inferior teachers.

Johns Hopkins University: Does not believe that work is of such a character as to warrant giving credit.

Lehigh University: No reason given.

Middlebury College: Work has not been sufficiently defined in secondary schools.

Vanderbilt University: Work as now developed is part of English work.

Washington and Lee University: No reason given.

Wellesley College: Work done in secondary schools not of such a nature to warrant the giving of credit.

University of Virginia: No credit given because no requests for credit made; however credit would be given, especially for those in the State of Virginia.

You can see that the most of them that do not give credit have as their reason that the work is not sufficiently standardized, which is something that can be remedied. However the most hopeful thing about the whole report and the part that I want particularly to call your attention to is the fact that 92% of the colleges that answered replied in the affirmative to the fourth question, i. e., all but two, reported that they felt much better work could be done in college if the fundamentals of the work were covered in the secondary schools. The two colleges that failed to report affirmatively did not report negatively, so we might safely say that the colleges and universities without exception see the value of Public Speaking in secondary schools. Excerpts from a few of these replies from colleges will help to substantiate my point.

Edgar Ewing Brandon, Vice-President and Dean of Miami University, says:

"It is my personal view that more work should be done in Oral English and less, perhaps, in written English both in secondary schools and in the freshman year in college. This oral English would be to a certain extent, public speaking, perhaps the best kind of public speaking. In my judgment, teachers of English have become slaves of the theme and composition. In life, everyone uses a hundred words orally where he writes one. A person, whether young or old, must be able to speak with a considerable degree of efficiency before he can write at all well. Hence my plea for more oral work in English."

Frederick C. Terry, President of Hamilton College, says:

"Undoubtedly, the gaining of the knowledge of the fundamentals in public speaking in the secondary schools would be of assistance in college."

John C. French, John Hopkins University, says:

"It would be very helpful in all our college work to have satisfactory teaching of public speaking in the preparatory schools."

John M. Thomas, President Middlebury College, says:

"Yes, and not only better work in public speaking, but also in composition, literature, and such subjects as history, economics, philosophy, etc. The general educational value of training in clear and forceful reading and speaking is not likely to be over emphasized."

Wm. J. Newlin, Secretary to the Faculty, Amherst College, says:

"I think it is quite possible that better and more advanced and profitable work in Public Speaking could be done in college if a satisfactory knowledge of the fundamentals of the work was gained in the secondary schools. My personal question in this matter is whether the secondary schools could secure a teacher able to give a satisfactory knowledge of the fundamentals of this work."

John Greene, Associate Dean, Colgate University, says:

"I certainly do believe that work done in the right way in secondary schools with a sound basis of fundamentals and wise training would be distinctly helpful to college work."

Ellen F. Pendleton, President, Wellesley College, says:

"The need of such work in secondary schools seems to me to be self-evident."

Adam L. Jones, Director Columbia University, says:

"In response to your fourth question, I am writing to say that we do believe that better and more profitable work in public speaking could be done in college if a knowledge of the fundamentals of the work was gained in the secondary schools. As a matter of fact, we think that the knowledge of the fundamentals should be gained even before the student enters the secondary school."

Many other college presidents write strongly of the value to college work of public speaking done in secondary schools. I shall not take more time to quote from these interesting letters, but the above quotations certainly convey the impression that the time is ripe for college recognition if we can prove that the work is suffi-

ciently standardized and worth while. Colleges seem to be only waiting for assurances that proper work is being done in secondary schools that will warrant entrance credit. There is no doubt but that much progress is still needed in the secondary schools to bring the work up to the college standard; but I maintain that the most efficient way of securing results is for colleges to make their requirements known, and then immediately the clouds will be cleared away for the teachers in the secondary schools and they will at once see what they must do to have their work recognized. Those who do not care to satisfy those requirements will of course have no complaint to make. It will be easy to work toward the satisfaction of those requirements when the requirements are known. All the colleges that commented on the suggested courses appended to the questionnaire, replied very favorably.

It seems to me then, that colleges should not wait for the secondary schools to move, but should themselves make the first move, for they have the more vigorous hold on the situation.

Of course one of the big difficulties is for the colleges to agree on what should constitute a course that could be handled by secondary schools and which would fulfill their requirements. In view of the fact that they have agreed upon standards for English, Mathematics, History, Latin, etc., there is no reason why there cannot be an agreement in the matter of public speaking.

In the light of the evidence brought out the committee makes the following recommendations:

1. That Public Speaking work in preparatory and high schools should be organized according to the time requirements of the standard college entrance unit, either for a full or half unit.

2. That we strongly urge that teachers of Public Speaking in colleges have personal interviews with their college presidents or deans and bring the matter of entrance credit to their attention.

3. We recommend that a definite effort be made to have the subject of entrance credit for Public Speaking work presented at the annual conferences of college presidents, principals, and headmasters such as the one that meets each year at Baltimore; for it is at such conferences as these that an agreement is often reached as to what constitute units for college entrance credit.

The above recommendations were adopted by an almost unanimous vote by the National Association.

EDITORIAL

CONGRATULATIONS AND FAREWELL

WITH this issue of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL the editorship passes into new and untried hands. It will be with genuine regret that the readers of this publication say good-bye to the one who has guided its fortunes during all the years of its existence. Words of praise would be inadequate to state the debt the National Association owes to the retiring editor. No person has had so much to do with giving life to THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL and with furnishing a source of power to the Association. His courage has overcome the seemingly impossible; his faith has looked beyond mountains of vexation and drawn inspiration from a future always most uncertain; and his keen judgment has given to THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL a fine balance and sense of discrimination that have made it the one greatest force the profession of speech training has ever known. To James Milton O'Neill the present editorial staff extend their sincere congratulations and thanks for the excellent services he has rendered; and they can do no better than to hope that the change in management will not impair the quality of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL nor decrease its influence for exercising a cementing and upbuilding power in the profession it aims to serve. Whatever the fate THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL meets it must always remain debtor to the pioneer energy and courage of its first editor, James Milton O'Neill.

THE NEW BOARD OF EDITORS GIVE GREETING

IN taking up their duties with THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL the new board of editors hope that there will be as little evidence of change as is humanly possible. For this present number this wish should be fulfilled to the utmost, inasmuch as practically all the

copy was handed over by the retiring editor, thus reducing the labors of the new administration for this issue to the minimum. But in the numbers to come we can wish no better testimonial of our service than that no change in tone or manner shall be apparent from the change in management. It is the ambition of the editor to keep THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL precisely what it has been; an organ in which every person interested in Speech problems of any kind can find a medium of expression and from which will come forth a constant stream of ideas, discoveries, opinion, and inspiration. To this end the new editor bespeaks the sincere and hearty co-operation of all readers. Write for THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL. Search for new facts and report on them. Organize your experiences and send them in. Digest and criticise all new books you encounter. Abstract and evaluate articles from other publications when they touch upon speech problems. Send in your opinions on the conduct of your official publication. And be perfectly free to tell the editor whatever you feel will help make THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL sound, readable, and helpful. In any case start some mail his way.

THE 1920 CONVENTION

THE Cleveland Convention just passed may in some ways prove historic. Never before has such harmony prevailed. Places on the program that had been left open for long discussions went begging for the expected clash of opinion, and easily found themselves occupied with matter of a common agreement and a fulness of understanding. As a profession we seem to have effected a "talking cure." If it be true that the way to overcome certain emotional states is to talk them out, and if it could be said that as a profession we have such states among us, certainly our vigorous expression of differences of opinion in the past seems to have worked a most beneficent result. We are cured, if the work of the recent convention can be taken as an index. We have come together. Differences in emphasis still exist, necessarily and fortunately. But the convention showed most clearly that the paramount desire in the mind of every member present was to build on a foundation of common understanding and mutual needs. The tone of the meeting can be best characterized in the words of President Drum-

mond in a circular letter recently sent to the Research Committee, "It would seem we are just about to begin our real work, and this with a fine feeling of solidarity fortified by the knowledge that what any one of us does well, all can largely profit by."

WE PROGRESS

A STUDY of the minutes of the late Cleveland meeting will reveal several distinct marks of progress. We are getting on. Matters which a year ago promptly went to the table are now the subject of unanimous agreement. Common understanding seems to be the order of the day. Mention may well be made of a few of the notable pieces of legislation or expressions of attitude.

An excellent start has been made toward a more complete agreement as to the aim of a fundamental course, especially for a beginning course. Four expressions of opinion were passed by the convention:

1. That it is the sense of the Association that the first course should contain such a body of information as can be reported upon in an examination at the end of the course.

2. That such a course should have as its aim "the conception and effective use of speech as a means of communication—a vehicle for ideas."

3. That it shall deal with the "discovery through analysis and assimilation of the intellectual and emotional content of material."

4. That it shall deal with "the development of the expressional powers for the purpose of communicating the ideational and emotional content."

The chief significance of these declarations is that they constitute a challenge to the educational world to catch up with the rate of progress set by the teachers of Speech. The number of otherwise clear-minded administrators who accuse us of trying to do what we no longer do and of having aims that we have long outgrown, is rather appalling. Let the readers of this magazine bring these resolutions to the attention of interested men who will be glad to know how we state our case for ourselves. It will be good for them, and for us; not to mention the cause of Speech training generally.

Even greater steps are in the making in the treatment accorded the reports of committees dealing with high school work and entrance credits. The resolution that courses in secondary schools should be put on a unit basis marks a distinct step forward. Let secondary school teachers take note, and bring before their superior officers this action, together with a recommendation that their school follow the recommendation. Then the action making the report on High School Course a special order for the next convention promises a clarifying of a situation that is little better than chaos. Nothing but good can come from this action.

These are marks of progress. May the evidence that they exist be promulgated widely.

THE FORUM

SECRETARY'S MINUTES OF THE FIFTH ANNUAL CONVENTION ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH CLEVELAND, OHIO

December 29, 30, 31, 1920

THE convention was called to order by President Woolbert. In the absence of Mrs. Bess Baker Pierce, the Secretary of the Association, Mr. E. L. Hunt was elected Secretary. The opening remarks of the President concerned the function of teachers of speech both as teachers of a liberal discipline and as specialists. The following program was carried out:

WEDNESDAY MORNING, DECEMBER 29, 1920

Address: "Expression as an Art," Walter Bradley Tripp, Emerson College of Oratory, Boston, Mass.

Report of the Research Committee, G. N. Merry, the University of Iowa.

Open discussion by Gaylord, Swift, O'Neill, Drummond. Outlines of graduate courses now offered at Iowa, Wisconsin, and Cornell were presented.

Report of Membership Committee. In the absence of Mrs. Pierce the report was presented by R. K. Immel of the University of Michigan, the business manager of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL.

Open discussion by Merry and Kay.

Professor H. S. Woodward of Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio, announced that he was commissioned by the Secretary of the Cleveland City Club to extend the courtesies of the Club to all the men of the Association.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON

Separate meetings were scheduled for the College and University teachers and the High School teachers. The two meetings were combined, however, and the time given to High School problems. Mrs. Bertha Forbes Herring, Nicholas Senn High School, Chicago, presided.

Address: "Speech Training as a High School Subject," William L. Connor, Principal High School of Commerce, Cleveland, Ohio.

Discussion as scheduled by the program was by Ralph E. Chapel, West High School, Akron, Ohio, and Miss Ruth Kentzler, Proviso Township High School, Maywood, Illinois.

Open discussion prevailed both before and after the scheduled papers. Reeves, Mrs. Herring, Winans, Mabie, Hollister, Sarett, and Van Wye participated. The discussion became something of a debate, centering around the following questions:

1. Should colleges and universities take the initiative in establishing standards for high school courses?
2. Should high school courses lead to a standardized beginning course in colleges?
3. What recognition should a teacher of speech receive for extra-curricular activities directed by him?

Address: C. P. Briggs, Principal Lakewood High School, Cleveland, Ohio.

Open discussion: Lindsley, Mrs. Herring, Hollister, Rasweiler, Kay, Winans, Woolbert, Miss Kentzler, Sarett, Trueblood, Dennis. The discussion here wandered freely, centering about the following questions:

1. What can the University do to help its students who are teaching speech in High Schools?
2. Should Universities allow entrance credit for High School courses and allow students with such credit to enter advanced courses?
3. Should any courses thus recognized concern themselves chiefly with physical aspects of delivery or with ideas to be communicated?
4. Should university departments claim the theory and practice of delivery as their proper field of specialization?

Committee on Boundaries between "English" and "Speech" appointed by President Woolbert: Gaylord, Van Wye, Kentzler, Sarett, Herring.

THURSDAY MORNING

Election of nominating committee by vote of the convention. O'Neill, Winans, Hollister, Mrs. Herring and Kay were elected.

Committee on resolutions appointed by the president consisting of Mabie, Lane, and Miss Rousseau.

Address: President Rees Edgar Tulloss, Ph.D., Wittenberg College, Springfield, Ohio, "The Psychology of Speech Training as Mental Discipline."

Open Discussion: Rasweiler, Gaylord, Redmond, Hunt, Tulloss, Rain, Swift, Gaylord. The question here was to what extent psychology would allow the claims of speech training to be a mental discipline.

Report of the Committee on Beginning College Course, R. D. T. Hollister, University of Michigan. This report was not in the form of recommendations or resolutions but discussed the issues in the form of questions.

Open Discussion: Sarett, Rain, Rasweiler, Winans, Kay, Hollister, Trueblood, O'Neill, Rain, Mabie, Gough, Marshman, Dolman, Redmond, Merry. Rasweiler moved association recommend the use of student assistants to supervise laboratory preparation on basis of three hours of work for one hour of credit.

Winans moved to table the motion. Carried.

Kay offered resolution that public speaking courses be not less than two hours for one semester and be credited upon the same basis as other academic work.

Trueblood moved to amend to three hours.

Hollister moved to table amendment. Carried.

Hollister moved to table motion. Carried.

Trueblood moved Association go on record as opposing the giving of fewer hours credit for a course than it has meetings per week.

O'Neill moved to table the motion. Carried.

Gaylord moved that it be the sense of the Association that the first course should contain such a body of information as could be reported upon in an examination at the end of the course. Carried.

Sarett offered as a minority report of committee on beginning

college course a statement of aims rather than method. This report was adopted in three resolutions and then referred to a committee for rewording, the committee being instructed to retain the principles of Sarett's resolutions.

Redmond moved that when the student shall be considered to have attained the aims described in Sarett's resolutions he be recommended to receive credit equal to one-eighth of one year's work. Motion withdrawn.

H. S. Woodward announced the Cleveland Women's City Club extended its courtesies to the women of the Convention.

Meeting adjourned.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON

Report of Committee on Rewording Sarett's resolutions. Gough, chairman; Marshman, Lindsley, Sarett, Redmond.

The following report was offered:

Resolved, That the National Association of Teachers of Speech recommend the following attainments as the primary objectives of the beginning collegiate course:

First, the conception and effective use of speech as a means of communication—a vehicle for ideas.

Second, the discovery through analysis and the assimilation of the intellectual and emotional content of material.

Third, the development of the expressional powers for the purpose of communicating the ideational and emotional content.

This wording was accepted by the Association. The session then divided into two sections, one for considering college dramatics, the other to discuss speech defects.

College Dramatics

John Dolman, Jr., the University of Pennsylvania, presiding.

Paper: a discussion of the methods and results of a working system for handling college dramatics, Robert I. Illingworth, Lafayette College.

Discussion: A. M. Drummond, Cornell University. Mr. Drummond outlined the procedure at Cornell.

Open Discussion: Kay, Trueblood, Williamson, Rain, Mabie, Van Wye, Rasweiler, Drummond.

Speech Correction

Paper: "What the Government is Doing for Soldiers with Disorders of Speech," Estelle M. Raymond, Government Hospital, Waukesha, Wisconsin.

Paper: Report on Cases. Pauline Camp, Director of Speech Correction in the schools of Grand Rapids, Michigan, presented cases under the title: "Speech Treatment in the Schools of Grand Rapids."

A general discussion took place bringing out strongly that the one most important consideration in Speech Corection is the matter of general condition, general health, and nervous stability. A debate as to the seat of the disorder involved in defective speech, started from Swift's contention that the brain centres are sources of activity, especially in matters of speech. Gaylord brought out the point of view that the centres are only a passage way for the operations of the reflex arc. This contention was supported by Merry, Raymond, and Woolbert. Questions were asked the readers of the papers, to which answers were given.

Adjournment.

FRIDAY MORNING

Business Session

Auditing Committee consisting of Van Wye, Fraser, Veatch, was appointed by President Woolbert.

Report of Treasurer, R. K. Immel, of the University of Michigan.

Gough moved that the Association thank Mr. Immel for his generous services. Carried.

Kay moved treasurer's report be accepted and placed on file until audited.

Dolman moved that the treasurer be authorized to solicit from members subscriptions to THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL of Speech Education of ten dollars, for which shall be given four subscriptions exclusive of the subscription of the donor. Carried.

Kay moved that it be recorded as the sense of the Association that no member sell any of his subscriptions for less than the regular price. Carried.

Trueblood moved that no subscriptions be given away. Motion lost.

Report of the committee on resolutions, Mabie, University of Iowa, Chairman.

"The committee recommends that these statements be made a part of the minutes of this convention and be communicated by the secretary to each of the persons and organizations named:

WHEREAS, the success, the profit, and the pleasure of the 1920 convention has been greatly enhanced

By Professor H. S. Woodward through his careful work in making local arrangements,

By Mr. Edmund Vance Cook, Mr. Lew Sarett and Mr. Walter Bradley Tripp through their contributions to the program at the annual banquet,

By the Cleveland Women's City Club through the kindly courtesies extended to the women in attendance upon the convention,

By the City Club through the extension of the courtesies and privileges of its Club House, and

By the Hotel Hollenden,

Be it Resolved, That this Association express its thanks and appreciation to these persons and organizations.

II

The Association desires to express its appreciation of the services which its officers have rendered during the past year. The work of President C. H. Woolbert, and of Professor R. K. Immel, Treasurer and Business Manager of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH EDUCATION, we deem worthy of special commendation.

III

To Professor James Milton O'Neill, who retires from the editorship of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH EDUCATION after six years of loyal service, we would say that resolutions are inadequate to express our gratitude for his leadership. The members of this Association and of the profession are indebted to him. Speech education has profited much because he has labored over tasks which were often burdensome and discouraging. For his editorial service, which has been effective and of wide influence, we are deeply grateful.

(Signed) LOUSENE ROUSSEAU,
F. H. LANE,
EDWARD MABIE, Chairman,
Committee on Resolutions.

Report of Nominating Committee. Professor O'Neill, University of Wisconsin.

REPORT OF THE NOMINATING COMMITTEE

National Convention, December, 1920

President.....A. M. Drummond, Cornell University
First Vice-President.....F. H. Lane, University of Pittsburgh
Second Vice-President.....Miss Texora Nash, Ashbury College, Kentucky
Third Vice-President.....C. B. Mitchell, Oregon State College
Secretary.....Miss Margaret Stedman, University of West Virginia
Treasurer.....R. K. Immel, University of Michigan

Editor of QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH EDUCATION:
C. H. Woolbert, University of Illinois.

Associate Editors:
G. N. Merry, University of Iowa.
Mrs. Bertha Forbes Herring, Nicholas Senn High School, Chicago, Illinois.

Assistant Editors:
Miss Maude May Babcock, University of Utah.
Smiley Blanton, University of Wisconsin.
John Barnes, Iowa State Teachers College.
Miss Pauline Camp, Public Schools, Grand Rapids, Michigan.
Ralph Dennis, Northwestern University.
John Dolman, Jr., University of Pennsylvania.
Miss Cora Everett, Westchester, Pa., Normal School
J. S. Gaylord, Winona, Minn., Normal School.
H. B. Gough, DePauw University.
D. J. Heathcote, Kalamazoo, Michigan, High School.
E. L. Hunt, Cornell University.
Mrs. Elizabeth Parker Hunt, Wellesley College.
R. S. Illingworth, Lafayette College.
Miss Ruth Kentzler, Proviso High School, Waywood, Ill.
C. F. Lindsley, University of Minnesota.
D. W. Redmond, College of the City of New York.
A. T. Weaver, University of Wisconsin.
J. A. Winans, Dartmouth College.

Kay moved that the nominees of the committee be declared elected. Carried.

Lane moved that the executive committee be empowered to make arrangements with the eastern conference for securing subscriptions to THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL. Carried.

Gaylord moved that it be the sense of the Association that "Teachers of speech should teach such phases of speech as may be taught from other points of view than the verbal or linguistic.

Teachers of English should teach such phases of speech as are relevant to written communication and such phases of oral expression as may be studied from the point of view of composition, grammar, diction, rhetoric, and language."

O'Neill moved to table the motion. Carried.

Report of the Committee on College Entrance Credits was read by the chairman, J. Walter Reeves of Peddie Institute. Rasweiler moved adoption of report. Chair ruled to defer vote until the report of the Committee on High School Courses was heard.

Report of the Committee on High School Courses was distributed in mimeographed form. Mrs. Herring moved its acceptance for publication in the next QUARTERLY JOURNAL. Mr. Redmond offered amendment that the report be made a special order of business for the next convention. O'Neill offered a substitute motion to publish the report in THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL with the understanding that the President appoint a committee to take it up and report at the next annual meeting. Carried.

Consideration of the report of the Committee on College Entrance Credits was resumed. Drummond, Woodward, Reeves, and O'Neill spoke to the question. Moved by Woodward that the recommendations of the report be voted upon seriatim. Carried. Three sections were thus read and adopted. O'Neill moved that the data collected by Reeves' Committee be published in THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL. Carried.

Drummond spoke by permission and suggested that putting secondary school courses in Public Speaking on a unit basis would go far toward solving the college entrance credit problem.

O'Neill moved that it be the sense of the Association that courses in secondary schools should be put upon a unit basis. Discussion by Redmond and Reeves. Motion carried.

Mabie moved that a supply of reprints of Reeves' report and data should be offered for sale by the business manager of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL and that the fact be made known by a footnote to the original article in THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL. Carried.

Report of the Auditing Committee, presented by Van Wye:

"Your committee has examined the accounts and records of Professor R. K. Immel, Treasurer of the National Association of Teachers of Speech, and find them to be regular and correct in every detail. We note one omis-

sion in his report to the convention regarding the provision by the University of Michigan of office equipment for his use without charge to the Association, acknowledgment of which courtesy we feel should be made in the resolutions of the proper committee."

Respectfully submitted,
B. C. VAN WYE
E. G. FRAZIER
W. H. VEATCH.

This report was adopted and the business meeting adjourned.

FRIDAY AFTERNOON

The convention met in two sections, one to consider the methods used by those present in their Public Speaking courses, the other for informal conference on Interpretation.

The conference on courses in Public Speaking was presided over by Redmond of the College of the City of New York. Discussion was opened by Kay and continued by Rasweiler, O'Neill and Merry, each speaker outlining briefly the courses offered in his department, methods pursued, texts used, and results obtained. Merry's report of the required beginning Public Speaking Course at the University of Iowa led to discussion by Veatch, Drummond, Mabie, West, and others.

The conference on Interpretation was presided over by Marshman of Ohio Wesleyan. The discussion centered around the concept of Expression; what it is, how it is to be brought out of students, and what its relation to auditors and spectators. Gaylord presented the method whereby he develops and brings out powers of expression in his students. A discussion ensued as to the value of these methods in the light of the needs of auditors and audiences. The discussion was participated in by Edwards, Miss Kentzler, Dolman, Woolbert, Marshman, and others.

E. L. HUNT, Secretary.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON HIGH SCHOOL COURSES*

The Committee recommends the adoption of the following resolutions:

WHEREAS, The National Association of Teachers of Speech recognizes and deplores the fact that Speech Education in the high schools of the country is in the main far less effective than it should be, principally for the following reasons:

1. An inadequate supply of trained teachers of Speech.
2. The prevalency of false conceptions as to what constitutes satisfactory training for the teaching of Speech.
3. The adverse conditions under which trained teachers of Speech are often compelled to work, and
4. A confusion of opinion as to the proper character and content of the Speech Courses which may be offered in the high school;

and whereas The National Association of Teachers of Speech desires to improve the situation in the foregoing particulars, *Therefore Be It Resolved that*:

I. A special committee of this association be appointed to consider the shortage of trained teachers of Speech and to recommend ways and means of improving this condition.

II. Teachers of Speech be required to have the same general educational background required of those who teach other subjects.

III. Teachers of Speech be required to have special professional training required of those who teach other subjects.

IV. School administrators should accord to the teacher of Speech the same measure of independent action, and to Speech courses the same degree of autonomy as given to other trained teachers and their subjects.

V. Where trained teachers of Speech cannot be secured and Speech work is given over to teachers whose preparation and interests are primarily in other subjects, it should be clearly understood that such arrangement is but temporary and unsatisfactory at best, and that college departments of Speech should not approve the granting of entrance credit for Speech work done in such high schools, except upon special examination.

VI. This association deprecates the attitude of those school administrators who conceive the main object of the work in Speech to be the preparation of a few selected, talented pupils for public exhibition in debate, speech contests, or acting; and this association urges its members not to teach in schools where this situation obtains.

VII. There should be introduced into the high schools of the country, as rapidly as trained teachers of Speech can be provided, a general beginning course in Speech which shall

*As presented on mimeographed sheets, to the annual convention of the National Association of Teachers of Speech, December 31, 1920.

1. Lay an elementary foundation for advanced and specialized courses in Speech, and
2. Provide the maximum amount of helpful Speech training for those who will not take advanced courses in the subject.

VIII. Where it is possible to secure trained teachers of Speech, a general foundation course in Speech should be required of all high school pupils in their second or third year.

IX. The *general foundation* course in Speech should run throughout an entire school year, meeting three times per week; or, through one-half of the year, meeting five times per week; preferably the former.

X. The following *specialized* Speech courses may be offered in the high school:

1. Story Telling.
2. Elementary Interpretative Reading.
3. Elementary Extempore Speaking.
4. Elementary Debating.
5. Elementary Dramatics.

XI. The function of the general foundation course in Speech should be
1. To furnish the pupil with an elementary knowledge of the fundamental processes of speech, and
2. To start the pupil on the way toward the effective use of his body as the instrument of his mind in communicating with those about him.

XII. The content of the general foundation course in Speech should be of such character as will be most serviceable in attaining the following objectives:

A. *A rudimentary knowledge of*:
1. The general facts concerning the nature and function of speech.
2. The two fundamental requisites of good reading and speaking, which are
   (a) Physical readiness for response to thought and feeling, and
   (b) Correct and adequate thought and emotional processes.
3. The functions and interrelations of the following:
   (a) Reader or speaker.
   (b) Listener.
   (c) Author, when other than the reader or speaker.
   (d) Characters presented in material that is to be read or spoken.
4. Elementary phonetics.
5. Elementary principles of voice production and control.
6. Standards for the appraisal of performance in reading and

B. *An increase of Proficiency in*:
1. The control of the muscle systems capable of symbolic and pantomimic action. Muscular relaxation, smoothness of co-ordination, and responsiveness to thought and feeling.

2. The control of the vocal apparatus. Diaphragmatic breathing, correctness and precision of utterance, vocal flexibility and responsiveness to thought and feeling.
3. The use of the total physical equipment as an instrument of communication in reading aloud simple prose and poetry.
4. The use of the total physical equipment as an instrument of communication in delivering simple original talks.
5. Intelligent criticism of one's own work and of others in reading and speaking.

Respectfully submitted,
MAUDE MAY BABCOCK,
University of Utah.
BERTHA FORBES HERRING,
Nicholas Senn High School,
Chicago, Ill.
D. H. WHEELER,
Lawrenceville School, N. J.
MARY YOST,
Vassar College.
ANDREW THOMAS WEAVER, (Chairman),
University of Wisconsin.

This report, as will be observed by reference to the minutes of the recent convention on another page of this issue, was made a special order of business for the convention of 1921. A special committee is to be appointed by the President to give it consideration.

THE RESEARCH COMMITTEE

AT THE suggestion of the nomination committee at the late convention the personnel and work of the Research Committee has been greatly enlarged. Mark this as one of the important forward steps taken at Cleveland. In the first place the membership has been greatly augmented. Then secondly, every member of the committee has been made an assistant editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL. And in addition, giving finer point to the work of the committee than has yet been provided, each member of the committee has been appointed to exercise supervision over a special field of the science of Speech and Speech Training.

Each member is thus appointed to keep in touch with all research activities in his field. He is at the same time responsible for the discovery of articles and books appearing in his jurisdiction and for publishing notices and criticisms of these in THE QUARTER-

LY JOURNAL. In this last particular the enlarged membership combined with the added activities of the committee will prove of inestimable value.

Following is the membership of the committee, together with a statement of the field each is to cover:

G. N. Merry, Chairman, University of Iowa; Voice Science.
J. A. Winans, Dartmouth College; Persuasion.
E. L. Hunt, Cornell University; Classical Rhetoric.
Ralph Dennis, Northwestern University; Interpretation.
Maude May Babcock, University of Utah; Community Theatre.
John Dolman, Jr., University of Pennsylvania; Theory of Play production.
Smiley Blanton, University of Wisconsin; Speech Disorders.
Pauline Camp, Grand Rapids, Michigan; Applied Phonetics.
J. S. Gaylord, Winona Normal, Minnesota; Theories of Expression.
C. H. Woolbert, University of Illinois; Behaviour Studies.
H. B. Gough, DePauw University; Usage.
C. F. Lindsley, University of Minnesota; Style in Public Address.
D. W. Redmond, College of the City of New York; Argumentation and Debate.
A. T. Weaver, University of Wisconsin; Teachers' Problems.

SUPPLEMENT TO THE LIST OF MEMBERS OF THE ASSOCIATION PUBLISHED IN THE NOVEMBER, 1920, ISSUE

ARIZONA

Tucson

Thorpe, C. D., University of Arizona.

CALIFORNIA

Berkeley

Watkins, Dwight, University of California.

Claremont

Frampton, Pomona College.

Patterson

Evans, J. Fraser, 225 Stanbough Street.

San Francisco

Weed, Benjamin, Mission High School.

Tulare

Conley, Irene N., Tulare Joint High School.

ILLINOIS

Champaign

Troutman, William C., 910 S. 6th Street.

Jacksonville

Thompson, Mrs. Perry C., 1124 W. College Avenue.

Libertyville

Steadman, Elizabeth.

INDIANA

Bloomington

Frazier, Edgar, 717 East 8th Street.

Evansville

Franklin, Mrs. G. Bruce, 11 S. First Street.

IOWA

Des Moines

Hardin, I. B., 3806 Cottage Grove Avenue.

KANSAS

Emporia

Parsons, Winifred, 728 State Street.

Wichita

McBride, Lida, High School.

KENTUCKY

Berea

Raine, James W.

MICHIGAN

Ann Arbor

Hathaway, John H., University of Michigan.

Kalamazoo

Shaw, Laura V., Western State Normal.

NEW MEXICO

Gallup

Kenamore, Hesther.

NEW YORK

Alfred

Mix, Mrs. Arlotta, Alfred University.

Brooklyn

Lieberman, Elias, 400 Irving Avenue.

Elmira

Morrow, Geraldine, Elmira College.

Ithaca

Hudson, Hoyt H., 213 Bryant Avenue.

OHIO

Cleveland

Sayles-Sleght, Genevieve, 1834 Reyburn Road.

Oberlin

Baird, Robert L., 279 Oak Street.

PENNSYLVANIA

Chester

Agan, Karl E., Pennsylvania Military College.

Philadelphia

Wescott, Harry D., 1100 Penn. Square Building.

TENNESSEE

Knoxville

Culbertson, Cora, Knoxville College.

TEXAS

Dallas

Rome, Clara, 4921 Live Oak Street.

UTAH

Provo

Pardox, T. Earl, 565 N. 2nd East Street.

WEST VIRGINIA

Morgantown

Steadman, Margaret, West Virginia University.

WISCONSIN

Ripon

Boody, Henry P.

NEW BOOKS

Modern Literature for Oral Interpretation: a practice book for Vocal Expression. 418 pp. GERTRUDE E. JOHNSON. The Century Co., 1920.

The bulk of the book, Modern Literature for Oral Interpretation, just issued by the Century Company, offers, as the name implies, selections which are with a few exceptions from modern literature, to be used in developing power in oral interpretation. In her preface the author clearly states her purpose in presenting the collection to the public, and justifies her work by a simple reasoning which will appeal to teachers of Expression who have had wide experience in the field. Such teachers will understand and agree with the idea that true responsiveness in reading aloud may more readily be induced by taking the student where we find him in his understanding of literature, and from that point, as his powers develop and make such expansion of interest possible, travel back into older years and earlier literatures.

In spite of the obstacles presented by the copyright law, here is collected material admirably adapted to the declared purpose. An unerring instinct has gathered what will appeal to vigorous, clean-minded modern youth—appreciation from a modern standpoint of out-of-doors; of heroes; stories of wholesome humor and sentiment; a few not-often-used speeches from Shakespeare; and excerpts from plays altogether likely to stimulate dramatic responses. It is a collection which represents a desirable addition to the material hitherto available for practice in Vocal Expression.

However, much as the convenient supply of suitable modern literature for student's practice may be regarded, there are other values which transcend this one. These are, *A Word to Teachers,* which discusses with unbiased frankness the difficulties—including the hostile attitude of English teachers,—which have hindered the

progress of teachers of Expression; *Suggestions on Interpretation,* which presents a sound analysis of the importance of memorizing readings, and of the spontaneous bodily responses in Expression; and, a discussion of *Problems in the Present Conduct of Declamatory Contests,*—problems which are unquestionably so numerous and so serious as to challenge the earnest consideration of all who have to do with them. In these few pages the author has recorded some highly pertinent conclusions, drawn from her years of experience in teaching; and it is to be hoped that wide numbers of teachers may find the significant import of what is so simply and clearly set down. A careful consideration of the points made should impress such, not only with the high educational value and opportunity possible in teaching Vocal Expression, but should furnish a very definite guide to the achievement of both.

E. P. H., Wellesley, Mass.

Public Speaking. By CLARENCE STRATTON, Ph.D. New York, 1920. Henry Holt and Company. Pp. 342. $1.48.

This manual seems well adapted to the needs of high schools. If it be termed a text in miniature, it is at least well proportioned. It appears to be the work of a scholar without the impedimenta of scholarship. If it makes no contribution to our knowledge, it may be said to select from the best current theory and practice. And that is something.

The book might easily be charged with attempting too much. Its treatment of words and sentences is not so good as may be found in many texts on English Composition. The chapter on the voice can of course be only elemental. The field of argumentation, too, has developed beyond the space allotted it here. Probably an experienced teacher of dramatics would term this portion of the book very incomplete. Yet the work represents as much specialization as is likely to be possible in high school. The study of public speaking is a growth and not a building. It has roots rather than foundations. As the roots go down the plant appears. All parts must be present in all stages of growth. It would seem, therefore, that high school texts ought to be what this one is, a collection of clearly-stated and well-illustrated generalizations from the more specialized productions. If the author be reproached with lack of

and Refutation are handled in a most excellent manner in so short a space.

The general theory of argument presented here has been presented in other books. It is in the explanation, illustrations, examples, and forceful diction that Professor O'Neill has succeeded in clarifying and adapting these principles to the minds of the high school students.

Like most books on debating, only one chapter is devoted to delivery. What is said is said so well, the author should have said more.

In an appendix of 124 pages is found: A. Parliamentary motions; B. A Student's Brief. C. A Student's Brief, Outline and Speech. D. Material for Briefing. E. Debating Leagues. F. Instructions and Ballots for Judge of a Debate. H. Discussion Contests. I. Instructions and Ballot for Judge of a Discussion Contest.

This is the most satisfactory book on debating for Secondary schools that I have seen.

D. J. HEATHCOTE, Kalamazoo, Mich.

Sources of Effectiveness in Public Speaking. Psychological Principles Practically Used in Developing Ability to Speak. By C. EDMUND NEIL, Professor of Public Speaking in Boston University and Newton Theological Institution. Hinds, Hayden & Eldredge, Inc., 1920; 590 pages.

By way of introduction to *"Sources of Effectiveness in Public Speaking,"* Mr. Neil implies that within the last generation great improvement has taken place in the matter of public speaking met in practical life. He urges also the significance of the fact that more speeches and more kinds of speeches are called for today than ever before. This demand is the reason, he declares, for careful study of methods used in the preparation of students who shall later speak in a public capacity.

Mr. Neil professes that his book follows the standard that, in every activity today, there is a search for those things that cause highest efficiency. Hence the course in speaking that meets the demand of the times is the course that sets forth clearly the causes of effective speaking and develops the speaker in these causes. He as-

serts that this text is the result of laboratory experiment under class-room conditions and has stood "the telling test of six years' class-room use."

"The experiments proved, beyond doubt, (1) that all the elements of effective speaking can be developed without taking the speaker's mind away from his subject and his audience. They proved (2) that when the speaker's attention is turned to the *causes* of effective speaking, then both his ability as a thinker and his graces of speech realize their most rapid and full development. The experiments proved (3) that when this method is followed, the speaker gains more and more *spontaneity,* that rarest charm and power in public speech." The author announces that the text is primarily for the use of students beginning the study of public speaking.

Mr. Neil begins the discussion with a statement of wholesome public speaking standards, trying to refute at the beginning that public speaking is entirely different from conversation, and, on the other hand, that it is nothing more than ordinary conversation. He attacks quite justly the views of teachers (are there any such still living?) who hold that the speech manner alone is of real consequence, as well as the group who hold that the speech matter is of sole importance. He then precedes to announce as his basis for study the findings of psychology.

Before judging the psychological background of this book it would be well first to ask ourselves what applications of psychology could be made to the field of public speaking. It seems fair to assume for the purposes of practical discussion that there are two phases of the psychology of public speaking: first, the psychology of the listening process; second, the psychology of the speaking process. The first type implies an experiment in which the audience is the unknown factor and in which the conditions of speech are under control, in order to discover what changes in the audience accompany known changes in the speech conditions. The second type implies an experiment in which the speaker is the unknown factor and in which changes in the audience and in the method of speech training are studied in relation to their effects upon the performance of the speaker.

A text for class-room use should be selected partly upon the basis of the type of psychology that the instructor considers most

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A text for class-room use should be selected partly upon the basis of the type of psychology that the instructor considers most

helpful for his class. Mr. Neil does not at all times clearly distinguish between these two types, but emphasizes the second, the psychology that is concerned with training the speaking process.

Now as to the psychological background that the book reflects: one may judge somewhat accurately as to its value by a study of the terms and definitions employed. (A failure on the part of the author to employ consistently the concepts of any recognized school of psychologists, is no proof that his psychology is unsound. Mr. Neil's task, however, is not to teach us psychology, but to apply what he can of the accepted knowledge and technic in that field to the field of public speaking. One would expect, therefore, that he would use terms in general use among psychologists and use them in senses most commonly recognized.)

The following list, selected more or less at random from the table of contents, is a fair showing: sensation, imagination, conception, memory, emotion, faithing, size (as applied to voice), subordination, vocal movement, tone-texture. Would it not be a fair test of the psychological background of this text to enquire in the first place as to whether these terms are those used by psychologists. The processes discussed by Mr. Neil, when he employs these terms, are all processes that have been analyzed and named by psychology. About half of the above list, however, would be meaningless to the psychologist. He would know what is meant by memory, but not by "faithing;" emotion would be negotiable, but "tone-texture" would be baffling; sensation he would understand, but not "size" as applied to the voice.

Now as to the *meanings* of such terms in the text as are current among psychologists; for we can forgive Mr. Neil's inventing a few psychological terms provided he defines correctly the ones he gets from psychology. Sensation, for example, he defines as "the effect produced upon one or more of man's senses by active contact with things around him." The word "active" used in that definition seems to imply more than most psychologists would include under "sensation." (Mr. Neil would seem to deny that.) The unrecognized flash of light upon the retinae, the unnoticed pressures upon the surfaces of our bodies, the unnoticed odors that constantly assail our noses, Mr. Neil would have to say are not sensations at all, if we establish no "active" contact with our environment; if, in other words, we do not give attention to the things

that affect our nerve endings. What he defines, borders closely upon *perception*. This is shown more clearly in another place. He says in discussing the relation between sensation and imagination, "unless the speaker is taught to get quick and accurate sensations from active contact with things, his senses fail to act when he is absent from these things." The use of the phrase "quick and accurate sensations" has no meaning if sensation is used in its usual psychological sense. If you allow sensation to have some of the coloring that is usually given to perception, it seems possible that sensation might be trained to make quick and accurate reports. But the most remarkable part of the definition of sensation is that he describes it in terms of itself. What he says is comparable to saying that a telegram is that which is received over the telegraph. It is true in part, but the part that is true is quite obvious and wholly non-descriptive.

"Imagination," he says, "is the function that makes things seem real at the present moment and at a definite place when those things are not actually present to the senses which they affect." In this definition one can see the influence of perception, illusion, and hallucination. It might even apply to dreams.

One more example, emotion. Mr. Neil makes fun of the old argument as to whether we are afraid because we run away from the bear or run away from the bear because we are afraid. He declares that neither of these stands is wholly tenable; one *might* be afraid of the bear and yet not run away, or run away from the bear and yet not be afraid. After this simple refutation of the two arguments, how does Mr. Neil solve the difficulty? Under the caption "Breathing and the Emotion of Pathos" he says, "In the experiments in pathos the student has probably discovered that great help sometimes comes from sudden and firm control of the breath." The author is suggesting ways to feel pathos, and he quite clearly directs here that the way to feel emotion is to perform the usual physical accompaniments of the emotion.

Again, under the heading "The Development of Other Emotions" he says (the italics are the reviewer's): "If the intending speaker has formed, from these brief experiments, the habit of sensing keenly, imagining vividly, conceiving clearly, *and acting freely,* in his thinking processes, until some one or more of the four emotions (delight, humour, courage, pathos) is aroused when-

ever he thinks of things that should produce them, he will soon be able to master other emotions. That is, he will have that ability, if he continues this practice, of developing and educating his emotions on all appropriate occasions." In other words, Mr. Neil stands upon the very ground that he says is untenable, that of saying that if you want to develop fear of the bear you must sense the big brute keenly, imagine the consequences of inactivity vividly, conceive the whole situation clearly, and then *act freely*. To develop emotion, then, you must act. After he has promised to settle the biggest psychological battle of the last twenty-five or thirty years, is not this explanation, to say the least, disappointing?

After finding that many of Mr. Neil's terms are in reality not psychological, and that the scientific terms he does employ are in many instances used vaguely, one is next prompted to ask if the psychological doctrine is sound; if, after all, the text is any more psychological than the texts in the field of public speaking in the days before applied psychology came into its own. From the time of Corax the audience chamber has in a sense been a laboratory of psychology, and every text in public speaking has in a sense been a text in psychology. But one who would write a text employing the principles of modern psychology in public speaking must do more than hunt for psychological reasons for the discoveries that have been made in the field of public speaking. Mr. Neil has done this much very well; yet little more. But he must do more; he must also carry over into the field of public speaking the results of modern psychological research, for the purpose of settling long-standing arguments arising between schools of art or for the purpose of divesting the art of public speaking of all useless elements of technic. Further, the author of such a text must definitely employ the principles and methods of scientific psychology to additional research in the field of public speaking. It would seem, then, that the scientific background of the text in question could hardly be dignified by the term "applied psychology."

All that we have said above does not necessarily condemn the book as a text-book in public speaking. There were good texts in this field before psychology was anything more than "mental philosophy." We may fairly ask next concerning the type of advice that the author is able to give in the field of pure rhetoric. I cite, merely as an example, his material on argumentation. He says

that in the plan for an argumentative speech we must first "conceive" a proposition. (Mr. Neil employs the word "conceive" in discussions that have no possible psychological significance. "Formulate," "decide upon," or "phrase" would do just as well in the present instance. He talks about "conceiving" of everything connected with public speaking from the "subject" to "how to read articles found.") He stipulates certain requirements that a good argumentative proposition must meet, among which are these: It must be a proposal to change existing conditions; it must furnish some definite scheme of action. By way of illustration of the first-mentioned requirement he calls attention to the fact that the law holds a man innocent until he is proved guilty. Mr. Neil forgets that the object of the trial is not to change an innocent man into a guilty one, but to find out *whether* he is guilty or innocent. In other words, Mr. Neil does not distinguish between questions of fact and questions of policy.

But to continue his discussion of the argumentative method: one must next "conceive" four more steps, one of which is the finding of the issues. The author says:

"To bring before the audience the main issues involved is the last and crowning act of an effective introduction to an argumentative speech. To conceive these issues requires, first, that two fundamental questions be answered: A. What classes of persons will be affected by the change which this subject proposes? B. How will each of these classes of persons be affected?"

This is not given us as a method of "conceiving" the issues, but it is a blanket recipe to cover the method of "conceiving" the issues to any question. One is tempted to ask how a lawyer in bringing a case before the court would find the issues involved in the litigation by asking these two questions. But since Mr. Neil seems to leave out of consideration the questions of fact, let us confine our study to questions of policy.

Suppose that our question were: That the text *"Sources of Effectiveness in Public Speaking"* should be used as a required textbook in the freshmen course in speech at the State University of Iowa. Our issues would then be arrived at by asking questions A and B above. Some of the classes of persons affected by the proposed change would be: the author of the proposed text and his family, the author of the displaced book and his family, the pub-

lishers of the proposed book, the publishers of the displaced book, the students in the course, the corps of teachers handling the course, the university in general, the state that supports the university, the nation of which the state is a part, the future auditors of the students in the course, etc., etc. We could make the list much longer if desired. Now, how would each of these classes be affected by the change proposed? Mr. Neil says:

"Only by carefully examining the probable advantages and disadvantages which the proposed action may bring to each of these classes, can you find the main issues which your subject involves." Such an analysis would result in a tie between one author with his family and publisher and the other author with his family and publisher. As to the other classes affected, in order to determine their probable advantages or disadvantages, one would have to consider the merits of the text itself. The whole question would hang upon that consideration. That task would be the fundamental process in the analysis, and when we had evaluated the text as to its suitability for the course in question, the other problems would be quite incidental. We can justly charge Mr. Neil with advising the use of "stock issues."

The author goes on to say: "Each of these probable advantages, when considered in connection with its attendant disadvantages, becomes a Minor Issue." He states that the main headings of the actual theme are called major propositions. "Whether or not we use this name for them," he declares, "we should remember the important proviso that they must be propositions." He talks about minor and sub-minor propositions and asserts that they, too, are real propositions. How he can make these propositions fulfill his requirement of suggesting some change in existing conditions, is hard to see. He treats a debate as though it were made up of a composite of minor debates, and each of them made up of sub-minor debates, etc., *ad infinitum*.

After all, the best judgment of a text-book in any art is based upon a study of the exercises that are suggested for the personal development of the student. Let me say at once that certain of the exercises suggested are of such a nature as to give a decided jolt to the teachers in the field who have fallen into the habit of limiting their practice work to the assigning of speeches, one after another. Mr. Neil's course is varied and unusual. He advises, for exam-

ple, in order to attain "tone texture," that you should feel of some material thing and then try to make your voice assume the texture of the thing felt. (One is prompted to ask if Mr. Neil would have a man carry a cold-chisel in his pocket and finger it lovingly whenever he wanted his voice to be "hard and steely?") For "vocal movement" he would advise you to stand beside a train and become so sympathetic with the efforts of the laboring engine that your voice would take on the "movement" of the train. His action exercises are remarkably novel, taking on almost the nature of assault and battery in some cases to give the student the sense of reality to his gestures. There are no two exercises alike. It is in this phase of the work that the author has shown his versatility.

When one reads such novel exercises as are suggested in this book, one is apt to say, "Well, Mr. Neil may get results with that method, but I couldn't." Thereby we shift from off our shoulders the burden of trying anything new. (We say, "It will not fit my personality; each man must teach in his own way." There is, no doubt, a great deal of truth in that point of view, but if that be all the truth, the great mass of pedagogical material that we have accumulated since the first teacher began to teach is all useless.) Oftentimes the real reason why the technic of the other man will not work in our classes is because we do not get his point of view. We see the letter of the instructions, but not the principle that the exercise employs. Those of us, then, whose fortune it is to study this text should not be blinded by the superficial psychology, the unusual voice science, the unorthodox rhetoric, and the bizarre exercises. These elements of the text are but a part. The biggest thing in the book is Mr. Neil's point of view. If we would get the most out of the text, we must study the exercises in the light of that point of view. If any of the exercises have real value, we will be able to use them best in the way the author intended. Only a sympathetic study of the text matter preceding each exercise will reveal the author's purpose.

What is the value of the book as a whole? I will say this: I think that I shall not give this book into the hands of my students. I shall use it myself as a reference, for I think that some of the exercises have great value.

ROBERT WEST, Iowa City, Iowa.

University Debaters' Annual. PHELPS, 1919-1920. The H. W. Wilson Co., New York.

"This volume of the University Debaters' Annual contains the affirmative and negative speeches delivered in the intercollegiate debates of the following colleges and universities: Chicago, Iowa, Texas, Utah, Redlands, Leland Stanford Junior, Coe, Washington (State), Yale, and Harvard. The subjects debated are: Government Ownership and Operation of Coal Mines, Cummins plan for the Control of Railroads, Affiliation of Teachers with the American Federation of Labor, Compulsory Arbitration of Labor Disputes, Compulsory Arbitration of Railway Labor Disputes, Closed Shop, Suppression of Propaganda for the Overthrow of the United States Government."

Briefs and bibliographies are included for each subject debated.

PERIODICALS

Plays for Amateurs. The University of North Carolina Record. Bulletin No. 172. Extension Series No. 36. January, 1920. 67 pages. Price 25 cents.

The University of North Carolina has recognized, as have many other universities, one of the serious faults of our educational instruction. Namely, "Our teaching methods have been almost wholly intellectual. We have failed to take into account the cultivation of the underlying emotions, and the right direction of the will. . . . Such methods are likely to result in a weakened capacity for action in the child." Not enough attention has been given to the development of the dramatic instinct which is of such great importance to everyone. The work of the Children's Educational Theatre in New York has demonstrated what drama can do in "training the emotions of the child, in quickening the imagination, and in directing the will along constructive lines."

However, in late years, the schools and colleges, in the towns and villages, and even the remote country districts, are giving the play a more important place in their systems than it formerly had. Consequently, there is a demand on the part of these amateur groups for plays that will give them the right kind of wholesome enjoyment as well as training. They too are sick and tired of these "brainless amusements commonly offered by the local moving-picture house and the commercial stage." To meet this demand is the purpose of this bulletin.

It is made up of a list of long plays, those for a whole evening's performance, short plays, of from one or two acts, and plays for children, including collections and single plays. Under the title of each is given the author, kind of play, number of acts, number of men and women characters, settings, publisher, and royalty, if any.

Another section is devoted to the classification of these plays